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Continuation Schools in England & Elsewhere

Their Place in the Educational
System of an Industrial and
Commercial State

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INTRODUCTION,

I.

THE view that the State should fix a minimum standard of school training and attainment and require it to be reached by every child, was first adopted in England as a principle of our public policy in the year 1876. The decision to adopt this principle was reached after a conflict of opinion which had lasted for three generations. It was reached with reluctance, because most Englishmen would rather things were done freely than under compulsion by Government. Voluntary effort has for generations played a great and stimulating part in English education. It cannot be dispensed with as one factor in any system of national training which has to adjust itself to complex and ever-changing national needs and to clashing convictions which have their roots deep in different social ideals. But in spite of much generosity and perseverance and in spite of its success in some parts of the field, voluntary effort failed to relieve the whole of the educational destitution in many of our great cities and in the new industrial districts which had become squalidly populous in consequence of the growth of the factory system. The fair-minded friends of the voluntary principle found themselves forced therefore to the conclusion that in the public interest they must call to their aid the authority of the State. This conclusion opened the way for the passing of the Elementary Education Act of 1870, the aim of which was to supplement voluntary effort by collective action. Six years later, the principle of enforcing a national minimum of school training and

of individual attainment became part of the law of the land. The slender minimum then fixed by statute has since been raised by successive enactments in 1880, 1893 and 1900. And since 1903 it has been generously interpreted by the Code of Regulations for public elementary day schools, a document which has the force of law.

But there is reason for thinking that once more the national minimum should be raised. In the course of every year more than half a million children in England and Wales leave the public elementary schools at thirteen or fourteen years of age. Not more than one out of every three of these children receives, in point of general or technical education, any further systematic care. Yet those who fail to receive such care, are, broadly speaking, those who need it most. And the years which immediately follow the day school course are the critical years of adolescence when stimulating instruction, technical training and well-directed guidance in matters of conduct and personal hygiene are often most needed and, if wisely given, most helpful towards healthy living and self-control. Those whose work lies among boys and girls of this age, especially in cities, lament the spoiling of promise and the waste of power which they see caused by lack of tendance and of invigorating discipline. Some economic changes have increased the mischief. It has never been so easy, as it is in England to-day, for a boy of thirteen or fourteen, to find some kind of virtually unskilled work involving long hours of deteriorating routine, in which there is little mental or moral discipline but for which are offered wages that for the time seem high and flatter his sense of being independent of school discipline and of home restraint. The work lasts for a few years and then leaves the lad, at the very time when he begins to want a man's subsistence, out of line for skilled

employment and only too likely to recruit the dismal ranks of the unskilled labour. Certain forms of industry, which make large use of boys and girls who have recently left the elementary schools, are in part (except where the employers make special efforts to meet their responsibilities) parasitic in character and get more than they ought, and more than their promoters realise that they are getting, of the physical and moral capital of the rising generation. Many callings connected with transport and communication, and some branches of manufacture, use juvenile unskilled labour to a degree which, if no counteracting measures are taken, must cause grave and lasting injury to the national life. And in this matter, great Government Departments are to blame.¹

The reality of these dangers is unquestionable, though no one can at present speak with confidence of their actual extent or of their remoter consequences. The dangers

1. Almost as these words were being written, an announcement was made which encourages the hope that the Post Office will in future have more regard for the further education of the boys in its service. The *Times* of October 19 contained the following paragraph :

"A problem which has long occupied the attention of those interested in educational matters seems at last to have found a solution. Many of the best lads attending the elementary schools throughout the country are attracted to the Post Office messenger service, because the pay is good, the uniform is smart, and the hours are regular. But under present conditions there is scarcely a chance of a telegraph boy's obtaining a higher position in the service, since the postmen are recruited from the ranks of time-expired soldiers. The consequence is that these lads must go out as pages, hall boys, and errand boys, and later on obtain their living as best they can. Recently, with the approval and assistance of the Brighton Municipal Technical College Committee, a conference took place between the principal of the college and the officials of the Post Office in the town, when the position of the telegraph messengers was discussed. The Postmaster undertook to see each messenger personally and ascertain from him if he would be willing, facilities being given, to apply himself to some definite trade or suitable study during his two years at the Post Office, and also to obtain the consent of his parents.

are felt not only in this country but also in France, in Germany and in the United States. The causes from which they spring are partly economic, partly psychological. In some districts of England the population is now passing through an acute crisis of industrial revolution in consequence of new applications of machinery and new developments of transit and communication. But the psychological causes of unrest are more subtle and not less powerful. The traditional ways of looking at things have been disturbed by a great stir of thought which has affected the intellectual atmosphere among all classes. Many things which used to be taken for granted, or at least not publicly questioned, are freely criticised and challenged. Rough and ready kinds of parental discipline have become less general, and in some cases have disappeared without any better form of home influence taking their place, partly because the parents themselves hesitate about the degree and basis of their authority; partly because the younger generation have often had

The result of these interviews has been encouraging, a large percentage eagerly enrolling their names and choosing their subjects, such as electrical engineering, general engineering, carpentry, plumbing, typewriting, shorthand, Civil Service, etc. The principal of the College submitted the scheme to his committee, who, having a sufficient number of free scholarships at the Technical College, decided to present them to suitable Post Office messengers. The lads will be kept under strict supervision, and their hours on duty at the Post Office so arranged that regularity of attendance will be ensured. The Postmaster will receive monthly reports as to their progress and conduct, and prizes have been offered to be competed for at the end of the session. It is suggested that municipalities throughout the kingdom should utilize their various technical schools for the same object, with the support of the various postmasters. It is also suggested that in future telegraph messengers should be engaged only upon the condition that technical education shall be compulsory during the two years that the boys are required, and that facilities will be made for their attendance at the classes." The Postmaster at Stockport took action in the same matter some time ago, and it is probable that in other towns similar efforts have been made.

more schooling than their parents; partly because each generation in turn grows up with its own attitude of mind which in this case inclines towards early independence. But all these changes have their good sides as well as their bad. Behind them all lies the tremendous force of the intellectual and economic movements which are carrying us forward not solely to new dangers but also to new opportunities of good. The state of things, which is now quickly passing away, was no ideal scene of virtue and happiness. Much of the older kind of discipline was arbitrary, stupid and merely repressive. Two of the most characteristic tendencies of the movement of thought, before which many old restraints are now losing their power of control, are the desire for reality and the desire for self-expression. These desires may lead into perilous places but, if there goes with them the restraining power of reverence and of self-knowledge, they mean veracity and strenuous life. It is no unreasoning or ill-judged confidence which relies upon the power of the truth and wisdom of the old order to hold their own and indeed to extend and deepen their influence under conditions which, after all, will for the most part be only superficially new.

Thus, in considering what it would be wise or possible for public authority and for voluntary workers to attempt in order to meet the educational needs of young people who have recently left the elementary school, we find ourselves face to face not only with a technical question of educational administration but with one (and that not the simplest) aspect of a grave problem in national life, a problem which is felt to be urgent in many other countries besides our own. We shall not expect, therefore, to find any simple or easy remedy for what is amiss. Whatever is done must necessarily be done in stages, so that the weight of public opinion may go along with new

legislation and with the administrative action to which such legislation would lead. In considering what should be done, we shall not be content to fix our thoughts upon the purely industrial or commercial interests which are at stake. These indeed are of far-reaching importance and must constantly be borne in mind in any practical handling of the subject, not only because the economic well-being of the nation is seriously concerned in the problem, but because the industrial and commercial occupations of the people have a close connexion with their moral welfare and outlook, ("the character of men," as Ruskin once said, "depending more upon their occupations than on any teaching we can give them or principles with which we can imbue them." ¹), and also because the part of the educational problem with which we are here especially concerned lies at the point where school-teaching has to be skilfully dovetailed into the duties of the workshop or the office. It is, however, the human side of the question that rightly appeals to us with the greatest force. We are right, when we discuss it, to think of individual boys and girls whom we know, in circumstances with which we are familiar, and of practical difficulties and opportunities of which we have personal experience. And this leads us to think of the real conditions of employment which lie around us; of the home circumstances of the children as we know them in real life; of the point of view of foremen; of the different ways in which employers regard their responsibilities; and of the actual people (teachers, attendance officers, clerks, inspectors) through whom, if it further exerts its authority, the State will be bound to act. By seeing things thus in the concrete; by trying to visualise the actual working of suggested plans; by trying

1. *Arrows of the Chace*, edition of 1880. Vol. ii, p. 193.

to judge how far their requirements could be evaded, and what their unseen and collateral results might be; by realising the inner differences which distinguish English social life from American or German or French; we may hope to escape from fallacious generalities and to see in fair proportion the part which, in England, legislation can play in social improvements and the parts which must be borne by public opinion, by the action of employers, by the skill and good sense of the teachers, and by the personal effort of individuals who bring to social service a shrewd combination of sympathy and science.

II.

It is in Germany that the most systematic and (so far as can at present be judged) the most successful efforts have been made to grapple with the question of the further training of boys and girls who have completed the course at the elementary day school. After Germany, stands Switzerland. In Denmark more has been done than in any other country to kindle national ideals and intelligent interest in co-operation among the country population. About a quarter of all the men and women between 20 and 50 years of age now engaged in Danish agriculture have passed through a People's High School. But the latter receive no pupils under 16 years of age (the great majority are between 18 and 25) and only six per cent. of their students come from the towns. Thus, though unrivalled in the spirit and efficiency of their work within its own sphere, these schools have not addressed themselves to the task (much more urgent, it will be remembered, in large towns than in the country) of getting boys and girls to follow some regular course of further training during the years which come immediately after the close of the elementary day school course. In

France and in Great Britain no effort has been spared by voluntary workers and by many public authorities in the organisation of classes, lectures, clubs and institutes of all kinds, for young people and for adults. But in both countries success has been greater in the case of older students than in the case of boys and girls who have just left the elementary day school. It is at the very point at which continuation school work is really continuative of what the elementary day school has begun that (with some brilliant and, fortunately, increasing exceptions) our efforts, like those of the French, have as yet comparatively failed. And it is in the large towns that under modern industrial conditions such failure leads to the most serious results. In the United States far less has hitherto been done in the way of evening classes than in Great Britain or in France. This is partly compensated for by the fact that, in the more progressive States, the mass of children remain at the elementary day school a year longer than is still the case in France or in England and Wales. But in the great cities of the Eastern States, and especially in Massachusetts, the waste of mental and moral power caused by lack of suitable training during adolescence is now recognised as a grave evil which impairs the social welfare of the community and threatens its industrial efficiency.

In all these countries, therefore, public attention is being turned to the problem of continuation schools. And everywhere the lines along which thought is moving point to three conclusions. First, there is need for further limitation of the hours of juvenile labour. Secondly, the law should place all employers, including Government Departments, manufacturers, commercial firms, retail tradesmen, and employers of young domestic servants, under statutory obligation to enable young

persons of less than 17 years of age who are in their employment to attend courses of technical and general instruction for four hours a week at times of day when the pupils are not too tired to profit by the teaching. And, thirdly, increased efforts should be made by the State to encourage local authorities and associations in organising, according to the needs of different localities and of different callings, courses of instruction which will be practically useful to young people of from 14 to 17 years of age and so planned as to train them for healthy living and for the duties of citizenship.

These proposals raise many thorny questions. They mean a great extension of the educational responsibilities of the State. They would impose upon employers responsibilities which in Great Britain, France and the United States are not yet recognised by law. They would prolong the term of years during which every parent is answerable for his child's receiving education. In the collective interest they would curtail some socially undesirable forms of private profit. In defiance of some recent applications of biological theory to social problems, they assume that skilfully organised education and discipline, so far from being "fleeting palliatives," can enhance the permanent well-being of a community by establishing forms of social environment which favour the development of moral qualities conducive to organised efficiency and to vigour of individual life. It may be pointed out, however, that in none of these respects do the proposals to which I have referred, involve any new principle. They simply propose a further application of principles already recognised in our social policy as regards employment, ~~productivity~~, and national education. The argument, therefore, turns on questions of degree. It lies indeed with those who advocate these new developments to show that they are

socially expedient, administratively feasible and likely to be, in the wider sense, ultimately profitable to the community, in fact so profitable as to make the expenditure which they would entail a remunerative investment. But it is not necessary for those who favour the raising of the national minimum standard of general education and of technical training to establish any new principle of public policy as a basis for their case.

The purpose of the following chapters is to furnish the reader with some materials for a judgment upon the questions thus raised.

III.

A few words should be added to explain the scope of this book and the circumstances which have led to its publication.

It is the outcome of an inquiry made by members (teachers and senior students) of the department of education in the University of Manchester. Assistance has been given by many former students of the department who are now engaged in teaching in different parts of England. To an older member of the Owens College (Mr. J. S. Thornton, a distinguished student of Scandinavian education) we owe the chapter on the People's High Schools in Denmark. A number of other writers, not personally connected with the University but interested in the subject of the inquiry, have contributed chapters based upon the results of their personal investigations—Mr. H. Bompas Smith (Headmaster of King Edward the VIIth's School, Lytham), Mr. G. L. Bruce, ~~who has borne~~ an influential part in London education, Mr. A. Mansbridge (Secretary of the 'Workers' Educational Association and a member of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education), Mrs. O'Brien

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Harris (an experienced teacher in London), Mr. C. T. Millis (Principal of the Borough Polytechnic Institute), Miss H. W. Jevons, Miss E. Jebb, Monsieur Georges Cahen, Mr. A. J. Pressland (of the Edinburgh Academy) and Mr. William Scott (Headmaster of Holy Trinity School, Liverpool). We are also indebted to many correspondents in this country and abroad for their courtesy in giving information in the course of our inquiry. Special acknowledgement is due to officers of the Board of Education and of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade; to members and officers of various Local Education Authorities; to Mr. Alfred Mosely, C.M.G., whose liberality has enabled many English teachers to gain the stimulus of new ideas from visits to schools in America; and to those employers of labour who have communicated to us the details of the arrangements made by them for the further education of their workpeople. We ask their indulgence if any errors have slipped into our accounts of their work. The index, besides the chapter which bears his name, is the work of Mr. Sandiford, a member of the staff of our department. As editor, I am indebted to Miss M. S. Beard (now Headmistress of Ladybarn House School, Withington, Manchester) for help, both in the collection of information and in the summarised presentment of it, without which the book could not have been undertaken or finished.

It will be understood that each writer is responsible for the opinions expressed in the chapter which bears his or her name. Those chapters to which no name is attached are the work of the editor.

The plan of the book is as follows. The first chapter gives an historical account of the growth of the chief agencies which furnish means for "further education" in England and Wales. The record of this work shows

the vigour and value of voluntary effort in English education; its quick response to new currents of feeling, religious and political; its power of kindling enthusiasm; the training which it gives in self-government; and the relief which it affords to moral tension in the national life. On the other hand, the record shows the weakness and the limitations of voluntary effort; its failure to deal with residual parts of the problem; its inability to enforce compulsion when the discipline of compulsion would be salutary; and its waste of energy in maintaining competing forms of organisation. In the title of Chapter I. the term "further education," officially used by the Board of Education and by the Scotch Education Department, is adopted as conveniently describing a wide range of educational agencies, among which are the evening classes under Government inspection and in receipt of Government aid. Chapter II. describes the present position of State-aided evening schools in England and Wales. Chapter III. reviews the work of the evening schools in London; Chapters IV. and V. that of the evening schools in Manchester, Leeds, Halifax, St. Helens, Bootle, Widnes and Rochdale, these towns having been selected on account of the special interest of what is being done there. Chapter VI. describes the work of the continuation schools in certain rural districts of England, Cambridgeshire, Gloucestershire, Northumberland, Cumberland, Buckinghamshire and the East Riding of Yorkshire. Chapter VII. summarises the results of an extensive inquiry among teachers and others as to the work of continuation schools in a considerable number of towns and some country districts. Chapter VIII. gives an account of the arrangements made by a large number of English employers for the further education of their workpeople. The information gathered in the course of our inquiry

shows that employers are giving increased attention to this subject and that technical instruction in England is rapidly coming into closer association with the workshop. The particulars published in December, 1905, by the Association of Technical Institutions in their "Reports of an Inquiry as to the Co-operation of Employers and Technical Institutions" (St. Bride's Press, Fleet St., London, E.C.) give farther proof of the same tendency. The main results of this branch of our inquiry are summarised on pp. 306-8.¹ The drift of educational thought in this country and elsewhere seems tending towards some system which would combine part-time instruction in the technical school with wage-earning in the field, factory or workshop. In England a legalised combination of elementary education and of wage-earning work has long been in existence, but it is allowed to begin at so early an age as to render the educational benefit of the system more than doubtful, while the social and economic results of it (so far at least as the textile trades are concerned) seem to be in the main injurious. An account of the working of this half-time system in the textile trades of Lancashire and Yorkshire is given in Chapter IX.

As the purpose of the continuation school is to provide further instruction for those who have already left the elementary day schools and have entered upon the practical work of life whether as apprentices or as independent wage earners or in the duties of the home, it is necessary

1. A detailed analysis of the courses of technical study arranged in evening classes and a discussion of present tendencies in evening technical instruction in England and Wales will be found in Mr. C. H. Creasey's "Technical Instruction in Evening Schools" (London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1905), the publication of which has materially furthered the movement for establishing closer relations between technical instruction and the practical work of industry. In our book we have avoided going over the ground so well covered in Mr. Creasey's volume.

for the student of the subject to take into account the laws which regulate the employment of children and young persons in factories and workshops. In Chapter X. will be found a summary of the provisions of these laws in the United Kingdom, Germany and Switzerland. For this chapter we are indebted to the Labour Department of the Board of Trade.

The industrial and economic changes, entailed by any great development of continuation schools, would affect the home life and early wage-earning power of great numbers of working-class families. Chapter XI. therefore describes the attitude of working men towards evening schools. An effective reform of the continuation schools, however, will depend upon improvements being made in the conditions of work in the higher standards of many elementary day schools. In view of this, the importance of trying experiments in the better co-ordination of the work of the closing years of the elementary day school with the course of work of the continuation school is urged in Chapters XII. and XIII. These chapters further recommend the establishment, for boys and girls, of new types of day continuation school with courses less literary and more practical than would be suitable in the secondary day schools of the older kind. A number of such schools have recently been established in England, and in Chapter XIV. will be found a review of their educational aims and courses of study. At present great numbers of children, on leaving the elementary day school, drift off into any kind of unskilled labour which may offer a (for the time) attractive wage. These "blind-alley" occupations are baited at the entrance with the offer of good money. But the boys and girls who have entered them, perhaps with little thought on their own account and often with no effective guidance from parents or

teachers, find themselves ousted a few years later by some younger competitor. And to this cause may partly be traced the excess of unskilled labour which forms a very serious part of the problem of unemployment. In order to grapple with this very difficult question, there have been established in London and elsewhere Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committees, the aims and work of which are described in Chapter XX.

For purposes of comparison the next seven chapters describe the way in which continuation schools are now organised in these countries whose educational experience is fullest of suggestion to English people. Chapter XVI. gives an account of the system in Scotland, where there is a strong current of thought in favour of throwing upon employers the statutory obligation of enabling their younger workpeople to attend continuation classes, and of giving local authorities the power of making attendance at such classes compulsory upon young people up to 17 years of age. Chapter XVII. describes the People's High Schools in Denmark, the most inspiring centres of civic training for an agricultural population which exist anywhere in the world. A great wave of national feeling secured their success: their teaching is powerful in its influence upon character because it embodies a moral ideal of civic duty adapted to the practical needs of the country folk; and their work has resulted in unforeseen economic advantage. In Chapter XVIII. an account is given of the remarkable development of compulsory continuation schools in nearly all the large towns and manufacturing districts of the German Empire. In many respects the German system of continuation schools may serve as the new model for Great Britain and the United States. In Chapter XIX. there follows a more detailed description of the arrangement, and cost of the continuation schools of Munich, in which city the new system has been carried

to a high point of excellence. The Continuation Schools of Switzerland, in nineteen cantons of which attendance is compulsory upon some part of the younger population, are described in Chapter XA. In Chapter XXI. an account is given of the continuation classes in France, and of the varied movements for providing means of social education for the people—movements which reveal an inner conflict between two social ideals. France at the present time stands next to Great Britain in vigour of effort to solve the continuation school problem by the method of voluntary attendance. Evening schools in the United States are described in Chapter XXII., and in the following chapter is given an account of the strong trend of opinion in Massachusetts in favour of industrial training in continuation schools, and of the reasons which cause many American citizens to regard with concern the failure of the present system of public education to furnish a course of practical training sufficiently prolonged to prevent great numbers of children, who might recruit the skilled trades, from drifting into the ranks of unskilled labour. This new movement in American opinion may lead to important modifications in the present law, and therefore in Chapter XXIV. an account is given of the present limits of compulsory education in different parts of the United States, and of the educational restrictions upon child labour which are now on the different Statute Books. The last chapter of the book discusses the question whether it would be expedient to make attendance at continuation schools compulsory in England and, if so, during what years; whether for girls as well as for boys; and whether in urban and rural districts alike or only in those areas (whether in town or country) in which the local education authority should so decide.

M. E. SADLER.

THE UNIVERSITY, MANCHESTER, "

- October, 1907.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Review of Certain Agencies for Further Education in England.

DURING the last hundred years evening schools and classes, with other means for the further education of the people, have played a significant part in the social history of England. In no other country have they been more numerous or more varied in form and purpose. In none have they been more intimately connected with the currents of religious feeling and of social or political aspiration. For two generations they attempted to fill the gaps which were left by a very defective provision of elementary day schools. They furnished the first beginnings of a system of technical instruction. They have given scope to individual energy and have adjusted themselves to the characteristically English preference for a great variety of independent societies, self-governing and adjusted to fine shades of differences of intellectual opinion and of social distinction. What Crabbe said of the schools of the Borough has been in some degree true of English arrangements for further education also —

“ To every class we have a school assigned,
Rules for all ranks and food for every mind.”

The evening classes and other forms of popular adult education in England have encouraged the habit, and have helped in training the power, of voluntary organisation. For fifty years they were without exception independent of subsidy from the State. To this day the majority of them receive no aid from public funds. By the help of evening

classes thousands of vigorous minds have repaired defects due to the lack of early training. The work done in them has steadied the judgment and kindled the imagination of many who have afterwards become leaders of opinion in their district or trade. Such classes have trained some of the leaders of the industrial and commercial movement which gave Britain a leading place in the markets of the world. They were the chief channel through which a knowledge of physical science was diffused among the industrial classes. In England, in Scotland and in Wales they have had their characteristic, and often separate, development. But each branch of the movement has in turn exerted decisive influence upon the others. Thus, the varied means of "further education" for the people have rendered signal service to the intellectual, moral and economic interests of the whole kingdom.

On the other hand, they have been in some respects little but a makeshift for what should have been done in elementary day schools. But, in England, conflicting (though dimly formulated) social ideals long prevented a comprehensive organisation of public education by means of the authority of the State. Much that was attempted in evening schools would have been better done by a well-planned system of day schools or by day classes dovetailed into the practical duties of apprenticeship. Through the lack of a sound foundation of elementary knowledge in the minds of many of the pupils, the work of the evening classes has often been wanting in thoroughness of intellectual discipline. Their efficiency has suffered from fluctuation in popular interest and from insufficient funds. Not having behind them the pressure of legal compulsion or such steady force of public opinion as renders legal compulsion unnecessary, they have left untouched large sections of the community, some of which especially need long sustained

and well directed care. They have offered excellent opportunities to those with enough force of character and physical vigour to fight their way through difficulties to positions of responsibility or of leadership. But they have in great measure failed to touch the less strenuous or the idle.

Thus alike in their excellence and in their defects, the evening classes have borne the characteristic features of English educational organisation. Free in their development, vigorous in some of their achievements, and often well adapted to the requirements of the persevering and the strong, they have been unsystematic in arrangement, weakened by defects in the early training of their pupils and, from a national point of view, insufficiently adjusted to the needs of the rank and file, especially during the critical years which lie between boyhood and manhood.

The reasons for the prevalence of evening classes in English education may thus be traced to our long-continued backwardness in organising elementary day schools (itself the result of an even balance between conflicting theories as to the social organisation of our national life) and partly to the social and economic disturbance produced by the Industrial Revolution. For the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century elementary day schools in England, both in numbers and in quality of work, fell far short of the needs of the nation, and especially of the new communities which had sprung up in consequence of the growth of the factory system. The swift economic change which took place at the time of the Industrial Revolution created large communities which, educationally, were almost destitute. Philanthropic effort set itself to grapple with their needs. Again, the Industrial Revolution brought to the front numbers of vigorous workpeople who felt their lack of early schooling and were eager for the opportunities of intellectual self-improvement afforded by the even-

ing class. Thirdly, great numbers of these men, in order to satisfy their curiosity about industrial processes and to enhance their technical skill, braved scientific information, much of which could conveniently be given in evening classes held when the day's work was done. Finally, the fact that adult education, apart from that given in the Universities and in a few other established institutions for higher teaching, was left for the most part to voluntary and co-operative effort instead of being organised on a definite plan under the control of the State allowed many different forms of opinion upon social matters to be diffused by its means.

In this chapter an attempt is made at a brief review of the historical development of the means of "further education" in England. Arranged in the order of their origin they fall under nine chief heads, namely, (1) the Sunday Schools, (2) the Adult Schools, (3) the Mechanics' Institutions with which were connected the rise of technical instruction and the spread of popular lectures on a great variety of subjects, (4) the Working Men's Colleges, (5) the educational efforts of working-men co-operators, (6) the Young Men's Christian Association, (7) Night Schools and Evening Classes under Government inspection, (8) the extension of University teaching, and (9) the Free Public Libraries and the National Home Reading Union. Brief accounts are also given of the work of a number of other agencies, the educational influence of which has been considerable. These are (1) the Boys' Brigades, (2) the Recreative Evening Classes Association, (3) the Co-operative Holidays Association, (4) the Workers' Educational Association, and (5) the National League for Physical Education.

An account of the most permeating influence of all, that of the Press and of popular literature, does not fall within

the scope of this volume. But its growth has been one of the distinctive marks of the period within which the means of "further education" in England have been multiplied. Its penetrating power has caused many of the chief developments of popular education. And the publication of cheap editions of scientific, philosophical and other works has been perhaps the most potent instrument in popular culture, apart from the influence of the personality of great teachers and the power of the living voice.

The history for this overlapping series of efforts for "further education" in England during the last 120 years falls into four main periods.

(i) The first period extends from the rise of the modern Sunday School movement about 1780 to the first Parliamentary vote 'for the purposes of education' in 1833. It covers the chief phases of the Industrial Revolution and the struggle for political reform. The main influences which were at work in further education at this period were religious and political. The religious revival of the 18th Century, expressing itself in the Wesleyan, the Evangelical and other movements, led many men and women to devote themselves to the task of relieving the spiritual wants of the poor and of teaching them to read in order that they might study the Bible. The political movement produced a strong desire for the intellectual enlightenment of the masses. It ran in two main currents. One was individualist and radical. The other collectivist and authoritarian. On the educational side of the first, the chief names are those of Jeremy Bentham, Brougham, and Francis Place. On the educational side of the second, the great figure is Robert Owen. Both groups drew part of their inspiration from France. The individualist group was greatly influenced, through Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (which strongly urged the wisdom of giving ele-

mentary education to the whole people) by Turgot and the Physiocrats. The other group, and especially Robert Owen, drew their educational ideas in great measure from Helvetius. Apart from the work of these two groups there was great educational activity on the part of earnest Non-conformists (notably William Allen and other members of the Society of Friends) and, on a larger scale, on the part of the Church of England. The educational labours of the latter call for special recognition. Though partly of a self-protective nature, they drew their real power from religious conviction and benevolent regard for the poor. These various movements, though divergent in many of their principles, were at one in providing means of elementary education for the poorer classes. Through the lack of day schools and the long hours of child labour, much of the instruction thus provided was given in the evening.

One of the earliest night schools in Great Britain was established by David Dale for the children employed at the New Lanark Mills. The story is told by Robert Owen in his *New View of Society* (1816). Speaking of the arrangements at the New Lanark Cotton Mills, he says, that his father-in-law, Mr. Dale, who founded the manufactory in 1784, built a boarding house for the 500 children whom he obtained from public charities (chiefly workhouses and charities in Edinburgh) to work in the mill. "The benevolent proprietor spared no expense to give comfort to the poor children. The rooms provided for them were spacious, always clean and well ventilated; the food was abundant and of the best quality; the clothes were neat and useful; a surgeon was kept in constant pay to direct how to prevent or to cure disease; and the best instructors which the country afforded were appointed to teach such branches of education as were deemed likely to be useful to children in their situation. Kind and well disposed persons were

appointed to superintend all their proceedings. Nothing, in short, at first sight, seemed wanting to render it a most complete charity. But to defray the expenses of these well devised arrangements, and support the establishment generally, it was absolutely necessary that the children should be employed within the mills from six o'clock in the morning till seven in the evening, summer and winter; and after these hours their education commenced. The directors of the public charities, from mistaken economy, would not consent to send the children under their care to cotton mills, unless the children were received by the proprietors at the ages of six, seven, and eight. And Mr. Dale was under the necessity of accepting them at those ages, or of stopping the manufactory which he had commenced. It is not to be supposed that children so young could remain, with the intervals of meals only, from six in the morning until seven in the evening, in constant employment on their feet within cotton mills, and afterwards acquire much proficiency in education. And so it proved; for many of them became dwarfs in body and mind, and some of them were deformed. This labour through the day, and their education at night, became so irksome, that numbers of them continually ran away."¹

An early case of the foundation of night schools by members of the Church of England was that opened in the Free Chapel of St. James, at Brighton, on November 1st, 1813, as described in the Reports of the Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor.² The school was established by the minister of the chapel, the Rev. James Marsh, and his wife for the benefit of those who attended no other school and who were employed during the day. "In the town of Brighthelmstone there are shepherds' boys, drivers of

1. "A New View of Society," 2nd ed., 1816, pp. 42--46.

2. Vol. vi., 1815, No. clxvi.

donkey carts, and others of this description; and many girls who are out at service or are employed in assisting their parents at home, and can only be spared in the evening." During the first week 42 boys and 38 girls applied for admission, and by November 29th the number had increased to 200. The whole number—100 boys and 100 girls—were divided into four companies of 50, according to their ability to read the Bible, the girls attending on Mondays and Thursdays, the boys on Tuesdays and Fridays. The senior girls were under the superintendence of a lady visitor and a writing master, the latter being paid £30 per annum for attendance on four nights a week. While twenty-five learned writing for one hour, the others read the Bible and were instructed in religion. Mr. Marsh directed the plan of the whole and attended at the close of school to catechise the scholars in the Collect for the week or the Church Catechism. Each scholar brought her own copy-book and one penny per week, for which she was to receive a Bible at the end of the year. The junior girls were under a lady visitor and a mistress, who was paid £5. 5s. per annum, and five of the senior girls remained to act as monitors. There were four classes—a Testament, spelling, single word, and alphabet class. Mr. Marsh came in for the last half-hour to catechise, as in the senior class.

The boys' classes were arranged in the same manner, the junior class being under a paid master. The expenses were £40. 10s. (writing master, £30; master and mistress for junior classes, each £5. 5s.). "It has been the principal object with Mr. and Mrs. Marsh," the report continues, "to prepare the children for their attendance on Religious Worship, and make them good members of the Established Church. Their attention has therefore been particularly directed to making them thoroughly acquainted with our excellent Liturgy, in all its parts."

An example of the self-supporting night schools opened at this period in the mining and manufacturing districts by wandering teachers may be drawn from the early life of George Stephenson (1781—1848), the founder of the English railway system. Stephenson was eighteen years old before he learned to read. Engaged as an engineman he heard of the engines made by Watt and Boulton. But he could not read about them. Therefore he went to a night school opened at Walbottle by a teacher Robin Cowens who taught him and a few other lads reading and spelling for 3d. a week. In the winter of 1799 Stephenson went to another night school opened by a Scotch teacher, Andrew Robertson, in the village of Newburn. Robertson taught him arithmetic and charged 4d. a week.¹

Within this same period (1798 onwards) the Adult School movement began. Its rise is described below (Pp. 17-21).

(ii) The second period in the history of "further education" in England extends from 1833 to the French Revolution of 1848. The movements which had begun in the earlier period continued, but new tendencies showed themselves in other parts of the field. The most significant of these were the increasing efforts for technical instruction (begun earlier by Anderson and Birkbeck, and especially noticeable in Manchester from 1824) and the work of William Lovett and his friends from the time that they issued their "Address to the Working Classes on the subject of National Education" in 1837. The movement for technical instruction was the natural result of the Industrial Revolution and the extended use of machinery. Apart, however, from this direct economic impulse, mention should be made of the influence of corresponding movements in France and in Germany. William Lovett's work was in-

1. Smiles' *Life of George Stephenson*. London: Murray, 1857. pp. 16-21.

spired by a political and social aim. It was strong with the new motive of association, which, from the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1848, became the distinctive mark of other inspiring efforts for adult education in England. This new motive was, in part, caught from France, but the extending influence of the educational ideas of Oxford, preeminently through the work of John Henry Newman on the one hand and of Arnold of Rugby on the other, was a not less potent factor in the new movement for social and collegiate education among working men. The Mechanics' Institutes had been somewhat individualistic and self-regarding in ideal and influence. Lovett's propaganda marked a generous reaction in feeling.

(iii) The third period extends from 1848 (when the French Revolutionary movement exerted a momentous influence on English social ideals) to the passing of the Elementary Education Act in 1870. The distinctive marks of the movement for further education during these years are four: (1) A deepened sense of personal responsibility for collective welfare; (2) an earnest desire on the part of many members of the older Universities to bring the influence and noble traditions of Oxford and Cambridge more directly into the service of the whole nation; (3) the influence of four writers and teachers, Thomas Carlyle, Frederick Denison Maurice, John Ruskin and Herbert Spencer; and (4) a new attitude towards education on the part of the State.

(1) Religious feeling, combined with social enthusiasm, produced Christian socialism, and with it the foundation of the Working Men's College in London by Frederick Denison Maurice and his friends in 1854. The link between this and the Chartist educational movement which preceded it is found in the Sheffield People's College established in 1842. Again, the evangelical piety (com-

bined with long-sustained self-sacrifice and great business ability) of George Williams and his associates led to the establishment and success of the Young Men's Christian Association. (2) The reform of Oxford and Cambridge, as a result of the Royal Commissions of 1850-2, brought the old universities into a new relation to English life. And the establishment of what is now the University of Manchester, by the legacy of John Owens in 1846, began the movement which has resulted in the creation of a new group of Universities, civic yet national in their work and aims. (3) In 1839 Thomas Carlyle sounded in his *Chartism* a trumpet call for educational reform. "Universal education is the great thing we mean."¹ In *Past and Present* in 1843 he called for "an effective Teaching Service" for the "souls of English living."² And the work of John Ruskin, though less heeded at the time, became in later years not less strong in its influence on the educational ideals of many Englishmen. Ruskin was a teacher at the Working Men's College, and closely identified with Maurice's work. Herbert Spencer's essays on Education, which brought Pestalozzi's ideas to the knowledge of the general reader in England (they were at work in some English schools forty years earlier), appeared in 1861. (4) This period (1848--1871) is also marked by the rise of the State as an authority in English education. Evening Schools were first aided by Government in 1851. The Government Department of Practical Art was established, as an outcome of the earlier School of Design, in 1852. It was followed in 1853 by a Department of Science. The two were united under the name of the Department of Science and Art in 1853. By Order in Council the estab-

1. Edition of 1840, p. 98.

2. Copyright edition (Chapman and Hall), p. 228.

lishment was removed from the Board of Trade to the new Education Department created in 1856. In 1850 the State had dared to lay its hand on¹ Oxford and Cambridge. In 1855 (as a result of the report of Sir Stafford Northcote and Sir Charles Trevelyan in 1853) it held the first open competition for places in the Civil Service, the beginnings of a system fraught with educational results of which we have not yet seen the furthest consequences. Thus, all along the line of elementary, secondary, technical, University and "further" education, men felt the rising power of the State. Moreover, the Prince Consort's influence and labours had led many Englishmen to sympathise with German views as to the functions of Government in promoting the culture of the people.

It should be added that during the decade 1860-1870 a new form of evening school became popular through the action of the Department of Science and Art, which recognised and vigorously encouraged the growing interest of working men students in the study of physical science. The scientific movement was stirring the thoughts of the nation. Darwin's *Origin of Species* had been published in 1859. Herbert Spencer in 1861 had boldly claimed for scientific studies the dominant place in intellectual training. Huxley, with unrivalled skill, was making the public realise the bearing of scientific investigation upon many current ideas. Tyndall, another lecturer to whom the nation listened, published his *Heat considered as a Mode of Motion* in 1863. The industrial applications of science grew in importance year by year. Perkin's discovery of the dye-stuff "mauve" had laid the foundation of the industry of coal-tar colours in 1856. The Bessemer process was invented in the same year, and armour-plating for ships in 1860. The Atlantic Cable was laid in 1866. Applied science had won its great victories and educational ideas

were profoundly affected by the new scientific point of view. Slowly, too, the idea of the State as an organism began to win its way, and disposed many thinking people, who were individualist at heart, to grant to Government a degree of educational authority unknown in modern England before that time.

(iv) The fourth period in the history of "further education" in England begins with the Elementary Education Act of 1870 and extends to the present day. Its main features are (1) the growth of the power of the central authority of the organised State, (2) the improvement of the education of girls and women, (3) the rapid development of the universities, old and new, (4) the advance of technical instruction, partly as a result of the working of the Elementary Education Acts, partly in conscious imitation of the educational policy of Germany and the United States, and (5) the several stages of an attempt to organise English education upon a comprehensive national plan.

This is not a place in which to enter into any detailed analysis of the influence at work during this last period—in some respects (unless we are deceived in our perspective) the most important period in the history of English education for two and a half centuries. But one result of the synthetic view of national education, which is the distinctive mark of the period, has been a convergence of thought upon the problem of the continuation school.

II.

(1) THE SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

The Sunday Schools were the first to offer opportunities of continued or elementary education to adults and to young people whose schooldays were over. Historically, they developed from the ancient practice of catechising in church. From the first, adolescents and even adults as

well as children came to be catechised. The 59th Canon of the Church of England, agreed upon in 1603, requires every parson, vicar or curate, upon every Sunday or holy-day, before Evening Prayer, for half an hour or more to examine and instruct the youth and ignorant persons of his parish in the Ten Commandments, the Articles of Belief, and in the Lord's Prayer, and diligently to hear, instruct and teach them the Catechism set forth in the Book of Common Prayer. Moreover, it is not only required that fathers and mothers should cause their children to come to the church at the time appointed, "obediently to hear and to be ordered by the minister until they have learned the Catechism," but all masters and mistresses are laid under a similar obligation in regard to their apprentices.

The English Charity Schools founded in great numbers between the years 1698 and 1750—under the guidance of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, which was established in 1698, chiefly at the instance of Dr. Bray—seem to have been expressly limited to children between the ages of 7 and 12 years.¹ But night schools for adults were recommended by the S.P.C.K. in a circular letter dated December 20th, 1711. (History of the S.P.C.K., Allen & McClure, page 143.)

The Welsh Charity or Circulating Schools which were established by Griffith Jones, of Llanddowror, in 1730, and which bore so great a part in the education of the Welsh people, form the next link in the chain. Jones had been admitted a corresponding member of the S.P.C.K. in 1713, and his connection with that Society had

1. See the orders "to be read and given to the parents on the admittance of their children," given in "An Account of Charity Schools lately erected in Great Britain and Ireland," London, 1709, page 7.

great influence upon his educational plans. To his Welsh Circulating Schools, as previously to his catechising "upon the Saturdays before the monthly Sacrament Sundays," Griffith Jones admitted parents as well as children. His express purpose was "to instruct both the young and the old ignorant people."¹ The object of these schools was to enable the people to read the Bible in Welsh. They were called Circulating Schools, because the plan was for a master to stay at a place until a number of the people had been taught to read, and then to pass on for similar work elsewhere. The S.P.C.K. helped the schools by donations of Bibles and other books. Persons of all ages attended them. Sometimes poor families were supported during the months that they attended the schools. Griffith Jones died in 1761. During the last thirty years of his life he had been instrumental in establishing 3,495 of these schools, in which more than 158,000 scholars had learnt to read. The adult night schools were attended twice as numerously as the day schools; two-thirds of the regular day scholars were adults. The work of these schools was closely connected with the religious awakening in Wales in the years 1735 onwards. In 1770, Jenkin Morgan, one of the schoolmasters employed in the Circulating Schools, opened an adult evening school at Crawlom, near Llanidloes, with meetings on Wednesday and Sunday evenings.²

The Sunday Schools established in Gloucester by Robert Raikes and Thomas Stock, in 1780, were intended for children; and throughout the history of that part of the Sunday School movement to which Raikes' work gave the chief impulse, the teaching of children has been the distinctive feature. In 1798, however, an adult Sunday

1. See Griffith Jones's "Report, dated December 1744, printed in "The Sunday Schools of Wales," by David Evans, 1883, page 94. (Sunday School Union.)

2. The Sunday Schools of Wales, p. 158.

School, for Bible reading and instruction in the secular arts of writing and arithmetic, was opened at Nottingham, in a room belonging to the Methodist New-Connexion, by William Singleton, a Methodist. He had help from Samuel Fox, a tradesman belonging to the Society of Friends; and the school came to be principally conducted by Fox and the assistants in his grocer's shop.¹ Adult schools were founded in Wales, in considerable numbers, during the years from 1785 until his death in 1814, by Thomas Charles of Bala, to whom the work of Griffith Jones had suggested the system of Circulating Schools. Writing in 1796, Charles said that he had established "Sabbath and Night Schools, for the sake of those who are too much engaged or too poor to avail themselves of the Day Schools."² The Bible Society was founded in 1804, and the discovery that many poor people could not read the Bibles which were offered to them led to a great increase in the number of Sunday Schools. In some districts of Wales nearly the whole population was enrolled in them.

Thomas Charles of Bala was thus the great organiser of Sunday Schools in Wales; and one of the characteristics which distinguish the Welsh from the English Sunday Schools, has always been the large proportion of adult students attending them. In England the work done in the Sunday Schools, until the middle of the nineteenth century, was chiefly—but by no means exclusively—confined to younger children. Increasing attention, however, has been paid to the care of adolescents in the Sunday Schools; and the adult school movement, of which the rapid growth is described below, is one offshoot of the Sunday School tradition. There is reason for thinking that the importance of Sunday Schools in English educa-

1. See "A History of the Adult School Movement," by J. W. Rowntree and H. B. Binns. Headley Brothers, 1903.

2. See "The Sunday Schools of Wales," p. 171.

tion will increase; and during recent years much has been done through the encouragement of the Sunday School Union (established 1803), the Church of England Sunday School Institute (1844), the Wesleyan Sunday School Union (1874), the Sunday School Association, and the Society of Friends' First-Day Schools Association, so to improve the methods of teaching and organisation as to increase the hold of the Sunday Schools upon young people during the years following the close of the day-school course. Of all the agencies engaged in the further education of young people, none is numerically and otherwise more important than the Sunday School movement in its various developments.

In 1789, some teachers in the Sunday Schools at Birmingham united together to give instruction in writing and arithmetic to young men after they ceased to attend the Sunday Schools.¹ But this "Sunday Society" appears to have been confined to secular teaching and moral instruction; and is therefore more fitly placed in the line of Societies ending in the establishment of the Mechanics' Institutes. (See page 22 below.)

(2) ADULT SCHOOLS.

* Closely connected with the Sunday School movement is that for the establishment of Adult Schools. The first of the Adult Schools on an undenominational religious basis was opened at Nottingham by Singleton and Fox in 1798. It was originally started for the instruction of working-women, but a men's class was soon added. The Nottingham Adult School is the only one opened before 1845 which has continued, without lapse, to the present day.²

The next Adult School, in order of date, was that founded

1. "History of Adult Education," by J. W. Hudson, p. 29. Longmans, 1851.

2. "History of the Adult School Movement," by J. W. Rowntree and H. B. Binns, 1902.

at Bristol in 1812. The visitors of the British and Foreign Bible Society, founded 1804, had found a great number of poor inhabitants who could not read. Attention was called to this fact at a meeting of the Bristol Auxiliary Bible Society in 1812; and in the same year one of the audience, William Smith, a Methodist doorkeeper, with the help of a Bristol merchant, Stephen Prust, opened two schools for the instruction of adults. A Society was soon formed in Bristol, called "An Institution for Instructing Adult Persons to read the Holy Scriptures." A member of the committee was Dr. Pole, the author of "History of the Origin and Progress of Adult Schools," Bristol 1814. The Bristol Adult Schools were particularly helped by the members of the Society of Friends. The movement soon spread to other parts of the country—Plymouth, London, Yarmouth and Sheffield. In 1813, a school for adults was opened at Brighton. In 1814, fifty-seven schools were started in Buckingham and Berkshire. These two efforts were not connected with the Society of Friends, but acknowledged the impetus which that Society had given to the foundation of Adult Schools. In 1815, schools were opened at Ipswich; in 1816, at York and Leeds; in 1818 at Edgbaston. With the one exception of Nottingham, these early Adult Schools were not permanent. They fall into two groups, the undenominational and the denominational. The greater number were undenominational Bible classes for adults. In 1842, Joseph Sturge of Birmingham visited Nottingham; and was much struck with the work of the Adult School there. For three years he pondered over the subject, and then laid before some of his younger friends a suggestion that a similar school should be opened in Birmingham. In October, 1845, a class for lads over 14 was accordingly opened, in the British School in Severn Street, Birmingham, from 6 to 8 on Sunday evenings.

In the following spring, as the evenings grew long, the attendance declined. The time of meeting was therefore changed to 7-30 a.m. Full-grown men soon began to come to the school, and at first, the teachers were somewhat disconcerted by their presence. In 1852, the adult school was separated from the junior department. The original order of procedure in the Severn Street classes was as follows:—The first hour was devoted to writing; one of the scholars and a teacher then read a chapter aloud; and the remainder of the time was devoted to Scripture, reading, spelling, and questioning by the teacher.¹

An Adult School for women was also opened in Ann Street, Birmingham, and afterwards removed to the Priory.

In the Adult School movement in Birmingham, no influence has been so great as that of the late William White, a native of Reading, who settled in Birmingham in 1848 as bookseller and printer. It was William White who, with the support of Joseph Sturge, specially directed the attention of the Society of Friends, in the years 1849 onwards, to the urgent importance of adult classes. The Friends' First-Day Schools Association, founded in 1847, united the Adult and Sunday school work of the Society. Since 1873, the adult work has been numerically the more important, though both parts of the problem receive the careful attention of the Society.

The Adult School movement met with a check in 1871, but recovered its impetus in 1874, from which time there has been a steady growth. The increase in the number of schools in recent years has been remarkable. In 1906, there were about 1,200 Adult Schools in England (men's, 850, women's, 350). About 100 new schools are opened every year. The number of members was 82,600 (men, 60,000, Women, 20,000, juniors, 2,600.). The work of the schools

1. "History of the Adult School Movement," *op. cit.*

is entirely voluntary, non-sectarian and non-party. They flourish alike in large cities, in towns and in villages, both in slums and suburbs. They meet in Council schools, National schools, Co-operative halls, Church and Chapel schoolrooms, Trades' halls, Friendly Societies' rooms, and even in lofts and workshops. The usual times of meeting, for the men's schools, are on Sunday mornings at 7.30, 8, 8.30 or 9; the women's schools meet on Sunday afternoons and weekday evenings. Most of the work is done in classes, the courses of study being Biblical and secular. Short lectures on social, scientific, or historical subjects, or addresses on religious topics, precede or follow the Bible classes. Many adult schools have now taken premises which they open every weeknight for friendly meeting and games and occasionally for classes and debates. The growth of the Adult Schools in Leicestershire has been significant during recent years. The schools reach about one-twentieth of the adult population of the districts, and in some villages a much larger proportion. The first half-hour of the Sunday morning meeting is utilised for the purposes of general instruction, *e.g.*, dictation, writing, or short lessons in history, science, or geography. Then follows Bible reading or religious instruction. In some schools discussion is encouraged, in others it is deprecated. But the ultimate purpose of the whole work of the schools is "to intensify the social spirit, by associating men together for the free study of the deeper problems of life, viewed in relation to the ideal of manhood set before them in the Gospels." The social development of the work of the Adult Schools has been striking in recent years. In Leicestershire especially, choral societies and bands have been organised in connection with some of the schools. Cricket and football matches are arranged by the members, who also hold flower shows and take part in summer camps and co-opera-

tive holidays. No one can visit an early Sunday morning adult school, without being deeply impressed by the depth of its religious earnestness, and the vigour of its social and educational life. The distinctive marks of the movement are the brotherly spirit which unites the members, and the simplicity, reality, commonsense and mutual helpfulness that characterize its work.

(3) THE MECHANICS' INSTITUTES.

AND THE RISE OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Another current of effort which has run through the movement for adult education in England began with the growth of interest in physical science in the second half of the eighteenth century. The work of the Society of Arts, founded in 1754 for the encouragement of the arts, manufactures and commerce of the country, and for the bestowal of rewards for discoveries, inventions and improvements in agriculture, chemistry, mechanics, manufactures and other useful arts, did much to stimulate national interest in the practical applications of science. The writings of Joseph Priestley, and the electrical experiments and discoveries of Franklin, quickened popular interest in scientific subjects.

Between 1780 and 1830 there sprang up in succession in England two well-marked groups of local societies which were carried on by voluntary subscriptions with the purpose of providing for their members enlarged opportunities of mental cultivation. The earliest in point of date were the Literary and Philosophical Societies. They were partly French (and Encyclopædic) in their first inspiration and were designed for the encouragement of scientific inquiry and literary culture.¹ Of the provincial societies,

1. The Philosophical Society of Edinburgh, which was replaced by the Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1783, belongs to an earlier group which can be traced to the model of the Royal Society. The Philosophical Society, formed by Franklin at Philadelphia in 1743, which became the American Philosophical Society in 1769, bears the mark of a like affiliation.

the Literary and Philosophical Societies of Manchester (founded 1781) and of Newcastle upon Tyne (founded 1793) were and are the most renowned. To the same group belonged the London Philomathic Institution (1807), the London Russell Institution (1808), and the London Institution (1809). These societies were the meeting places of a cultivated élite. They rendered a considerable service to scientific investigation, partly by encouraging research, partly by facilitating communication between men of similar tastes, and partly by assuring friendly support to those who might, in isolation, have incurred suspicion and unpopularity.

The second group were the 'Mechanics' Institutions. These were designed for the benefit of working men. Though not connected with either political party, they became associated with a point of view that was distasteful to the more conservative section of English society because of the opinions of some of their most conspicuous supporters. The idea of their establishment came from Scotland, but one of the first Mechanics' Institutions in England (the Liverpool Mechanics and Apprentices' Library, founded in 1823) is said in the original circular to have been prompted by the example of New York. The first object of the Mechanics' Institutions was the instruction of working men in the branches of science which were of practical application to the exercise of their trade. The very backward condition of elementary education blighted this first organised attempt at technical instruction in England. The great majority of the working classes were not sufficiently prepared by elementary school training to take advantage of systematic instruction in the scientific principles underlying their trades. Quarterly or annual payments were inconvenient to most of them. The result was that the attendance of workmen declined. The in-

stitutions became more and more closely identified with the tradesman class. In 1839 Brougham, who was indefatigable in his support of Mechanics' Institutions, suggested an effort to popularise the scientific side of their work by a system of itinerant lectures. It was proposed that a lecturer should visit all the institutions in a district, giving a lecture at each. But the plan did not work satisfactorily, partly because of the lack of class teaching of the kind needed by the workmen, partly because the great majority of the latter were too deficient in general education. But the Mechanics' Institutions did a great work, partly in diffusing a more general interest in scientific questions, but still more in affording intellectual stimulus and encouragement to numbers of workmen of exceptional ability. The spirit which animated the movement was somewhat individualistic and utilitarian, but it inspired energy and weakened much deepseated prejudice. It provoked a reaction against itself, but by doing so rendered a further service to national education because it compelled those who, like J. H. Newman and F. D. Maurice, disliked and distrusted its tendencies, to give clear expression to their objections and to work out in a practical way their own educational ideal. Many of the original Mechanics' Institutions disappeared or were transferred into middle-class reading-room and lending libraries with programmes of miscellaneous lectures. But a number held their ground through a long and difficult period until the working of the Elementary Education Act of 1870 began to bear fruit and the time was ripe for a general advance in technical instruction. The technical instruction movement of to-day owes much to the pioneer work of the founders of the Mechanics' Institutions.

I now return to the history of individual institutions. In 1789, the "Sunday Society" was founded at Basing-

ham, for the instruction of young men after they had ceased to attend the Sunday school. This Society arranged lectures on mechanics and other branches of physical science, for working men, especially those engaged in the foundries and manufactories of the town.¹ In 1796, the Society changed its title to the "Birmingham Brotherly Society," and continued for many years to diffuse a taste for scientific pursuits among the artisans of Birmingham. Connected with it was the Birmingham Artisans' Library; and this organisation may claim to be regarded as having been the first Mechanics' Institution in Great Britain.

Dr. John Anderson, professor of natural philosophy in the University of Glasgow, was, in the habit of giving, for some years before his death in 1796, a course of lectures on experimental physics, to which some workingmen, among others, were invited. By his will, he left the greater part of his property for the foundation of an institution to be called Anderson's University. In 1799, Dr. George Birkbeck was appointed professor of natural philosophy and chemistry in this institution. He had visited Birmingham and knew the work done there by the Brotherly Society and by the Artisans' Library. When he began his first course of lectures at Glasgow, he found it necessary to make a good deal of apparatus; no philosophical instrument maker resided at that time in the city, and Dr. Birkbeck was accordingly obliged to apply to the workshops which were best able to meet his needs. In this way, he came into personal communication with a number of Glasgow artisans. He found them so anxious to acquire knowledge, and so full of intelligence, that he resolved to deliver a course of experimental lectures upon mechanics, "solely for persons engaged in the practical exercise of the mechanical arts, men whose situation in early life has precluded the possi-

1. "History of Adult Education," by J. W. Hudson, p. 29.

"bility of acquiring even the smallest portion of scientific knowledge." Birkbeck's first lecture was attended by 75 workpeople, and the numbers rose so rapidly that at the fourth lecture there was an audience of 500. He continued the lectures during the two following sessions, but removed to London in 1804. The mechanics' class at Anderson's Institution was continued for many years.

In 1821 there was founded the Edinburgh School of Arts, for the purpose of affording instruction to the labouring classes. Its secretary was Leonard Horner.

In 1823, seceders from Anderson's Institution established the Glasgow Mechanics' Institution; and in the same year the Mechanics' and Apprentices' Library was founded at Liverpool. In 1823, the London Mechanics' Institution was established, under the presidency of Dr. Birkbeck. The new Institution was heartily supported by Brougham and by those who shared his educational and political sympathies.

The important part which Manchester has played in the work of technical instruction began in the early days of the movement for the establishment of Mechanics' Institutions. The Manchester Mechanics' Institution was founded in 1824. Its building was the first erected in England with accommodation for the various departments of its scientific work. It provided systematic class instruction in chemistry and mechanics. Its chief object was "to point out and teach the scientific principles upon which the business of the machine-maker, the dyer, the carpenter, the mason and others depends." Eleven citizens subscribed £6,600 for the erection of the building, among the founders being Benjamin Heywood and William Fairbairn. For more than fifty years the defective state of elementary education hampered its work, but the institution was carried on with great persistency of purpose and rendered

good service by its lectures on science and literature, industrial exhibitions and concerts. In 1857 the institution was transferred to a new building in what is now Princess Street. About 1880 the good effects of the Elementary Education Act of 1870 began to be felt, and the outlook for technical instruction became brighter. The Manchester Mechanics' Institution was one of the first in the country to avail itself of the aid given to technological instruction by the City and Guilds of London Institute (established in 1879). At this point in its history steps were taken to enlarge the scope of the Mechanics' Institution, and its name was changed to that of the Technical School. In 1880 the Government appointed a Royal Commission to inquire into the question of technical instruction, and two Manchester citizens, Mr. John Slagg and Mr. (now Sir) William Mather took a distinguished part in its work. Manchester was the second city in the kingdom to avail itself of the power conferred upon local authorities by the Act of 1889 to levy a rate for purposes of technical instruction. In 1892 the Technical School and the School of Art were transferred to the care of the Corporation, which, with the aid of a gift of land from the legatees of Sir Joseph Whitworth and of large sums assigned for the purpose out of the profits of the Exhibition of 1887, began in 1895 the erection of the present School of Technology. Thus in the history of the Manchester Mechanics' Institution may be traced all the important stages in the development of technical instruction in England from 1824 to the present day.¹

From 1824 onwards the Mechanics' Institute movement spread rapidly through the country. The best account

1. Hudson, *History of Adult Education*, 1851, pp. 124—9, and Mr. J. H. Reynolds' article on "Technical Instruction in the City of Manchester," in the *Handbook* issued in connexion with the meeting of the British Medical Association held in Manchester in 1902.

of their early growth is in Hudson's History of Adult Education, already mentioned. In 1837, Mr. Edward Baines suggested the establishment of a Union of Mechanics' and other Literary and Scientific Institutions in the West Riding of Yorkshire, for the purpose of engaging lecturers and interchanging opinion on questions of the management of the Institutes. In 1839, a Metropolitan Association of similar Institutions, and a Lancashire Union, were established; the latter had the support of Richard Cobden. The Lancashire and Cheshire Union of Mechanics' Institutions was founded in 1847. In 1850-51, there were in England alone 610 Literary and Mechanics' Institutions, with a membership of 102,000. The Mechanics' Institutes movement was fairly successful in Scotland, where in 1850-51 there were 55 Institutes, with 12,500 members; but comparatively speaking, it was a failure in Ireland and in Wales. It was found that, in spite of their name, the workingmen did not join the Institutes in large numbers. In a few cases, as at Huddersfield, Birmingham and Liverpool, the plans of the founders were realised; but in most cases the membership of the Mechanics' Institutes was chiefly recruited from the tradesman class. The class distinctions in England were stronger than Brougham and his fellowworkers had realised; Brougham had also exaggerated the educational value of courses of lectures without systematic class instruction. The educational work of the Literary and Mechanics' Institutions rapidly declined from 1848 onwards. The managing committees were out of sympathy with many of the new political and social ideas that were then stirring the working classes; and as a factor in the adult education of the people the Mechanics' Institutions for several decades were of comparatively small importance, though in some parts of the country, especially in the West Riding of Yorkshire, their influence was strong in the smaller towns and villages.

But a new stimulus was given to the educational work of some Mechanics' Institutes and similar local organisations by the offer which the Government made in 1859 to give grants in aid of scientific instruction. In that year the Department of Science and Art established an examination for teachers, and those teachers who obtained a certificate of competency to teach could earn payments from the Department in proportion to the number of pupils they passed in the general examinations first held by the Department in May 1861. The instruction had to be given in a school approved by the Department for the industrial class and, apart from other conditions, the local managers were required to guarantee for the support of the school, whether from fees or other local funds, a sum at least equal to the Government grants.

An important link in the history of the educational movement which began with the Mechanics' Institutes and (through the confluence of several currents of effort and influence) has led to the foundation of the newer University Colleges and of the London Polytechnics, is formed by the work of the Birmingham and Midland Institute, which has borne a great part in the work of adult education in the city and neighbourhood of Birmingham for more than fifty years. The Institute was established in 1853 and incorporated by Act of Parliament in the following year. The original programme and prospectus stated that "the want of a Literary and Scientific Institution in Birmingham, commensurate with the character and requirements of a town where the occupations of the great majority of its artisans demand a certain amount of mechanical, chemical or artistic knowledge, led to the foundation of the Institute." The view of the promoters was that it would become "a great industrial college." "The education of artisans, practical miners and others in

the scientific principles of their daily avocations" was stated to be "a primary object of the Institute." In 1854 the Town Council of Birmingham granted a site adjoining the Town Hall for the proposed buildings, on condition that £10,000 was raised for their erection. The Council appealed for support to all who were "interested in the education of the people in the scientific principles of their daily occupation, and in a knowledge of those 'common things' so essential to social comfort and success in life." This appeal for financial support met with a liberal response. The original plan of the institute embraced a General Department and a School of Industrial Science. The General Department included (1) the Literary branch, comprising libraries, reading-room and lectures on subjects kindred to this branch; (2) museums, devoted to geology,

eralogy, natural history, the manufacture of the district and models and specimens of machinery used in the various manufactories; (3) a collection of mining records; (4) lectures on general scientific subjects; (5) periodical meetings for the reading and discussion of original communications upon the plan of the British Association, and (6) a gallery of Fine Arts for paintings and sculpture. In the School of Industrial Science the members were to be provided with systematic lectures and class instruction in the various branches of science with especial reference to these particular occupations. Classes were promised in Chemistry, Mechanics, Metallurgy, Mineralogy, Geology, and Mining Engineering. The Governing Body of the Institute was representative of the Borough Council, of the chief educational institutions of Birmingham and of the subscribers. The Institute was founded in the year marked by the establishment of the Government Department of Science. On one side of its work it was an outcome of the new movement for technical instruction which had

just received encouragement and assistance from the State. But its programme wisely included other than technological studies, and shows that those who framed it had in their minds the liberal education of a great community.

Again, the Birkbeck Institute, London, forms a link between the old Mechanics' Institutes and the new London Polytechnics, the foundation and development of which have been one of the greatest educational achievements in London during the last twenty-five years. The beginnings of the London Polytechnics were due to Quintin Hogg, whose work among London working boys began in a ragged school, in a room in Of Alley (now York Place), Charing Cross, in 1864.¹ Quintin Hogg's work developed in 1871 into separate evening classes in Hanover Street, and in 1878 into an evening institute in Long Acre. In 1881, Mr. Hogg bought the lease of the derelict Polytechnic in Regent Street, and at great expense altered it for its new work as a social and educational institute for young men. In 1882, Besant published his novel "All Sorts and Conditions of Men," in which was described a plan for a Palace of Delight for the East End of London. Out of this idea ultimately sprang the People's Palace, now the East London Technical College. It was, however, the appropriation of money under the City Parochial Charities Act, 1883, that gave a permanent foundation to the new movement. A Royal Commission had reported that the charitable endowments of the City of London were being largely wasted or frittered away. They recommended the appointment of a special Executive Commission, with power to frame schemes for the application of these large funds to

1. See "Quintin Hogg," by Ethel M. Hogg. London: Constable, 1906. Also, "London Education," by Sidney Webb, pp. 133 and following. Longmans, 1904.

objects of utility to the whole Metropolis. In 1883, largely through the exertions of Mr. Bryce, an Act of Parliament was passed which appointed special commissioners to prepare a general scheme for the establishment, in different parts of London, of Institutes which would do what Mr. Hogg had shown to be possible at the Regent Street Polytechnic, and what was aimed at in the proposed People's Palace in the East End. Upon condition that other funds were provided in each locality by private subscription, the commissioners offered to London a very large capital sum, and annual endowment, for the establishment of polytechnics. Three of the City Companies—the Drapers', the Goldsmiths' and the Clothworkers'—gave munificent donations in aid of the establishment, respectively, of the People's Palace, of an Institute at New Cross, and of the Northern Polytechnic at Holloway. Other City Companies gave further help. Mr. Evan Spicer, and Sir Henry and Mr. Edwin Tate, gave large sums for the establishment of Polytechnics in Southwark and Battersea. In 1892-3, the London County Council began to devote to the promotion of technical education the grant from the national exchequer made by the Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890. The Polytechnics received a large and liberal share of this new fund. The result is that there are now in London twelve Polytechnic Institutes, with three branches. It would be difficult to overestimate the value of the services they have rendered to adult education in the Metropolis, both on the strictly intellectual and also on the social and recreating sides of their work. The Polytechnic Institutes of London are, in some ways, the most characteristic educational achievement of the last twenty years.

(4) THE WORKING MEN'S COLLEGES.

Next in order of historical development come the Working Men's Colleges. They sprang from the Chartist movement and from the Christian Socialist movement. Their growth was due to a sense of the need for fellowship, brotherhood and social union in all higher education among adults. Their founders felt that the Mechanics' Institutions had failed to meet the educational needs of the working classes. The first (though by no means the most influential and important) of the Working Men's Colleges was the People's College at Sheffield, established in 1842 by the Rev. R. S. Bayley, an Independent Minister then living in the town. His prospectus states that the Mechanics' Institutions generally had fallen far short in their efforts at popular education, and that the time had come when studies of a higher range ought to be placed within the reach of the youth of the middle and working classes. He proposed to establish classes in Latin, Greek, French and German, Mathematics, English Literature, Logic, Elocution and Drawing, besides the more elementary subjects which formed the course of the ordinary night schools. The times of meeting were from 6-30 to 7-30 a.m. and from 7-30 to 9-30 p.m. Women were admitted as well as men. The fees were ninepence a week. Mr. Bayley himself bore the brunt of the work. His enthusiasm and determination kindled the zeal of the students. The classroom, for the first year and a half, was "a whitewashed, unplastered garret, not fitted up with the necessities, much less with the conveniences, of study. In this place the morning classes in winter were particularly uninviting, and it required considerable devotion to travel through snow at half-past six in a morning, before breakfast, to find a room probably without fire, or one but newly lighted by the monitor-student, to whose lot it had fallen for the week

to perform that and kindred duties. But there was no trial that the Principal himself did not willingly endure, and no morning, however rough and uncomfortable, but found him in attendance.”¹ At the first meeting of the Committee, “the room was illuminated by a half-penny candle inserted in an earthenware inkstand.” Owing to a number of untoward circumstances the numbers began to fall off about 1846, and in September 1848, when Mr. Dayley left Sheffield for London, the College was all but extinct, but it was saved by the resolute efforts of sixteen young students, many of them under age. Twelve out of the sixteen were appointed to form a committee and a constitution for the College was framed. It was on democratic lines. “The People’s College shall be a self-supporting and a self-governing Educational Institute.” “All persons above sixteen years of age shall be eligible to become members.” “Subjects bearing upon party politics or sectarianism shall not be introduced in the classes.” “The executive power shall be vested in a committee of twelve students.” Mr. T. Rowbotham became president. The new constitution of the College was approved at a public meeting in October 1848. “It was stated at the meeting that the Committee did not possess a single book and had not a single farthing to invest in furniture. Indeed, to outside observers things looked so hopeless that Mr. Overend, J.P., who had presided at the public meeting, and his brother earnestly asked the Committee to estimate the probable expenses of the first year that they might subscribe a portion and beg the rest. Although the generosity of this offer was perfectly appreciated, it was nevertheless respectfully declined. A principle had been laid down

1. Quoted from “An Account of the Origin and Progress of the People’s College at Sheffield,” by T. Rowbotham, in the *Working Men’s College Magazine*, 1859 vol. i, pp. 71-2 and 98-101.

and it must be abided by.”¹ The classes were opened on October 17th, 1848. Before the end of the month 200 students had joined the classes. The College was opened at 6-30 a.m. for an hour on Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday, and every evening from 7 to 9-30. The General Rules laid it down that “The females shall sit in any part of the room that the Committee may appoint, and retire first at the close of each class. No student shall leave his seat until the females have retired.” Day classes were established in connexion with the institution, partly as a feeder to the College, partly because the teachers engaged for the day classes would help with the evening work. Industrial classes were opened in 1853, as the Committee considered “that there was something more required for the artisans of Sheffield than purely mental discipline, however excellent that in itself might be, and that to be really a College for the people, it must include in its classes studies that would have a direct bearing upon the industrial pursuits that distinguished the town.” Public lectures were given on Chemistry in its application to the staple trade of Sheffield. In 1856, the Committee decided to avail itself of the examination then instituted by the Society of Arts. The Sheffield People’s College was “the means of receiving and dispensing more than £4,000 for the promotion of popular education during the ten years 1848-58, and through many temptations, steadily held to the principle of self-support.”

Mr. Rowbotham makes no mention of the “Address to the Working Classes on the Subject of National Education” drawn up by William Lovett and others in 1837, but it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that, consciously or unconsciously, Mr. Bayley had been influenced by Lovett’s sug-

1. Mr. Rowbotham’s “Account” in the *Working Men’s College Magazine*, vol. i, p. 98.

gestions. The latter proposed a comprehensive plan of schools for the people under a committee of Public Instruction to be selected by Parliament every three years. The creation of schools and colleges was to be at the expense of the nation. The Committee of Public Instruction was to be responsible for all monies received and expended. But as all avoidable concentration of power was to be avoided, it was proposed to set up in each locality a School Committee of twenty or more persons to be elected annually by universal suffrage of the whole adult population, male and female. These School Committees were to be entrusted with the selection of teachers, the choice of books, and the whole management of the schools. Each School Committee was to represent an area of about equal size and to have power to levy an annual rate. State Training Colleges were to be established in different districts throughout the country. No teacher was to be allowed to teach in any school without having qualified himself at a Training College. Besides the Training Colleges, four different descriptions of schools were to be established throughout the country: (1) Infant Schools for children from 3 to 6, (2) Preparatory Schools for children from 6 to 9, (3) High Schools for children from 9 to 12, and (4) Colleges or Finishing Schools for all above 13 who might choose to devote their time to acquire the higher branches of knowledge. All the schools were to be open to both sexes. No particular forms of religion were to be taught in any of them. The Colleges were to be "open every evening to enable the adult population to avail themselves of the benefit of musical instruction societies, singing, lectures, or any other rational pursuits or amusements."¹

It will be remembered that the influence of William

1. *An Address from the Working Men's Association to the Working Classes on the subject of National Education.* London: Cleave [1837].

Lovett and the Chartists was strong in the West Riding of Yorkshire. The educational ideas set forth in the Address from the Working Men's Association are closely akin to those which the young men who formed the Committee of the Sheffield People's College tried to carry into effect. In both places, the significant word 'College' was prominently used. The Colleges of Wm. Lovett's scheme, like the College at Sheffield in 1842, were to be open in the evening to both men and women. The range of subjects in both programmes, at any rate after the election of the Committee at the Sheffield College in 1848, was almost identical. In both, stress was laid on the teaching of Chemistry in its application to the trades and pursuits to which the students were engaged. In both cases, all distinctive religious teaching was barred by rule. The general similarity between the two schemes is so close as to suggest the thought that the young men who formed the nucleus of the People's Colleges at Sheffield from 1842 onwards had been influenced by the educational ideas put forward by William Lovett and his thirteen co-signatories five years before.

But the greatest service rendered to English adult education by the Sheffield People's College was that it suggested to Frederick Denison Maurice and his friends in 1853 the foundation of a People's College in London. It thus helped to create an institution which has done more than any other College to set up a high, disinterested and humane ideal of working-men's education.

"The Paris February Revolution of 1848," Dr. Furnivall, one of F. D. Maurice's fellow workers, wrote in 1860, "said to a barrister of Lincoln's Inn, Mr. John Malcolm Ludlow, 'Are you lawyers doing your duty to the poor in the place where you earn your fees?' The answer was a proposal to the then newly-appointed Chaplain of Lincoln's Inn, Mr. Maurice, that some district near should be taken in hand by the lawyers whom Mr. Ludlow could get together. After refusals of nearer places, Little Ormond Yard (close to the place where the Working Men's College was afterwards established) was handed over to us, and our house-to-house visiting began. We soon had to engage a mistress

and open an infant school, and at night taught boys and men in the rooms ourselves.

Well, we visitors and teachers used to meet at Mr. Maurice's one evening in the week to have tea and chat and read the Bible together, and at these meetings the letters on "Labour and the Poor," then coming out in the *Morning Chronicle*, and written by Mr. Henry Mayhew and his coadjutors, were the subjects of frequent and earnest talk. Few of us had any idea of the widespread misery in the workmen's homes around us, and fewer still know how the slop-system had been at work lowering wages, destroying the honourable trade and forcing women and children into their father's work. Week after week did Mr. Ludlow press these subjects on our consideration and say "we must no longer be accomplices in this state of things, we *must* get an honest middleman between us and some workmen at least; we *must* have here an Association like the French Working Men's Associations, in which the manager shall be appointed by the men and by us, and be a bond between us instead of a division" Under Tuesday, Jan. 8, 1850, in my diary I find the entry: "Little Ormond Yard School, from 7-30 till 9-15; meeting at Maurice's about starting an Association of Tailors—about twenty-three there,—talked till 12; appointed a Committee; £300 wanted." Mr. Ludlow had not only started the notice of an Association, but had in his visitings in Fetter Lane found a message for it in the person of Mr. Walter Cooper, a well-known Chartist speaker. . . . Mr. Kingsley wrote his pamphlet "Cheap Clothes and Nasty." Money was raised by subscription among our friends; the Working Tailors' Association opened shop at 34 Castle Street East, Oxford Street, and on February 11th, 1850, appeared "Tracts on Christian Socialism," No. 1 (written by Mr. Maurice) to explain that "Our object was to apply the principles of Christianity to trade and industry" . . . Mr. Vansittart Neale came forward to help us. Several Working Men's Associations began business in London and the country. Mr. Slaney got us "The Industrial and Provident Societies' Act, 1852" to facilitate their formation, and a great spur was given to the co-operative movement which has since so widely spread through the North West of England. The Little Ormond Yard party, with some additions, formed "The Society for Promoting Working Men's Associations," and built the "Hall of Association" under the workshops of the "Tailors' Association" in Castle Street. In this Hall were begun, at Mr. Ludlow's suggestion, classes and lectures, to both of which women were admitted.¹ The only successful classes were Mr. Ludlow's French one and the Drawing-class.

A great want had been felt all along for better education among co-operators, and at our meeting on Jan. 11, 1854, the minute-book says: "A conversation took place concerning the establishment of a People's College in London, in connexion with the Associations, and Mr. Vansittart Neale read a letter received from Mr. Wilson, the Secretary of the People's College, Sheffield, as to its origin and history, and also the five Annual Reports of that Institution," and, further on, "The following resolution, proposed by Mr. Hughes, seconded by Mr. Lloyd Jones,

1. Among those who gave lectures at this Hall in 1852 were F. D. Maurice, John Hullah, R. C. Trench, William Johnson of Eton, F. C. Penrose, Nevil Story Maskelyne and the present Marquis of Ripon. In the following year lectures were given by Charles Kingsley, M. Grant Duff, J. Llewelyn Davies, Charles Pearson, Lloyd Jones and others. (See the chapter by J. M. Ludlow on "The Origin of the Working Men's College," in *The Working Men's College, 1894—1905*, pp. 14—16. Macmillan, 1904.)

was carried: "That it is referred to the Committee of Teaching and Publication to frame and, as far as they think fit, carry out a plan for the establishment of a People's College in connexion with the Metropolitan Associations."

This record shows how close was the connexion of ideas between the Chartist movement and the activities of the brilliant and high-minded group of workers which gathered round Frederick Denison Maurice. It also proves that the account which Maurice and his friends received of the People's College in Sheffield had influence upon them at the moment when they set their hand to the work of establishing a People's College, (or, as it was afterwards decided to call it, a Working Men's College) in London.

The same point was touched upon by Mr. Maurice himself in an address which he gave in the Corn Exchange, Manchester, on January 5th, 1859, at the 'aggregate annual meeting' of the Manchester, Ancoats and Salford Working Men's Colleges. He gave an account of the motives which had induced his friends and himself to take part in a London Working Men's College.

"We were a knot of men of different professions—lawyers, doctors, parsons, artists, chemists and such like. . . . We were afraid of falling into the little pedantries and the little jealousies which are sometimes apt to spring up among professional men when they are shut up within their own narrow circles. . . . How could we be secured from that peril? We might be secured from it if we could form an alliance with men brought up in circumstances altogether unlike ours, if we could enter into sympathy with some great body of human beings who could be regarded in that character and that only. Now while we were thinking about these things, and thinking earnestly about them, there came that awful year 1848, which I shall always look upon as one of the great epochs in history. . . . I do say that when I think how it has affected the mind and heart of the people of England; yes, of all classes of Englishmen. . . . I hear one intelligent man and another confessing: 'Ten years ago we thought differently. But all of us have acquired, since that time, a new sense of our relation to the working-class.' . . . It did cause us to fear, I own; but it was not fear for our property and position; it was the fear that we were not discharging the responsibilities, greater than those which rank or property imposes, that our education laid upon us. . . . We believed and felt that unless the classes in this country which had received any degree of knowledge more than their fellows, were willing to share it with their fellows, to regard it as

1. *History of the Working Men's College*, by F. J. Furnivall in the *Working Men's College Magazine*, 1860, pp. 144–8.

precious because it bound them to their fellows, England would fall first under an anarchy, and then under a despotism. . . . Therefore, we sought for some method of binding ourselves to the working classes of the country. . . . Apparently there were many methods by which we might, if we desired it, make our little education useful to those who had less. There were, for instance, the Mechanics' Institutes, which that earnest and excellent man Dr. Birkbeck bequeathed to this country. Some of us had the opportunity of lecturing at these institutions, and whenever we did so we were more than rewarded by the sympathy which was bestowed upon us. But such sympathy made us desire a closer fellowship than the mere effect of occasional lecturing could make. Besides these institutes, Evening Classes of a more regular kind have been commenced in London and have been a vast blessing to overworked clerks in public and private office, and have happily conspired with the examinations for the Civil Service which have been recently established. But here, again, the relation was merely one between teacher and learner, and what we wanted, if possible, was to make our teaching a bond of intercourse with the men whom we taught. How that could be, we might never have found out. But the working men themselves had found it out. We heard in 1853 that the people of Sheffield had founded a People's College. The news seemed to us to mark a new era in education. We had belonged to Colleges: They had not merely given us a certain amount of indoctrination in certain subjects: They had not merely prepared us for our particular professions: they had borne witness of a culture which is the highest of all culture. We had formed in those Colleges friendships which we hoped to keep wherever we went—friendships that had had an influence upon our life and character through all the years that had passed since we left them. . . . Was it not a glorious thing then that the working people should lay hold of this name; that they should say, 'we are determined we will have Colleges? Whether you set them up among us or not, we will have them, because we want to connect all our education with our social life, with our fellowship as human beings.' I repeat it, you will see then that we have no pretensions to originality in our London College: we were plagiarists from the Sheffield people."¹

It was indeed a glorious kind of 'plagiarism.' The Sheffield idea was transfigured under the influence of Maurice and his friends. But both ideas were one in their essentials. Both laid stress upon the necessity of the spirit of brotherliness and fellowship in all higher education of adult students; upon the fact that in its true form such education is mutual education; and that teachers and taught must meet as human beings, with full confidence in one another and without reserve.

"Our first-class," said Maurice in the same address at Manchester, "(indeed before the College was opened) was a Bible class. Over that class I presided and the course which I pursued, was simply this—I read

1. *Working Men's College Magazine*, February, 1859, pp. 28 and following.

a portion of Scripture, I explained what I thought was the meaning of it, then I invited all possible questions from those about me. I wished them to ask anything that was in their minds, anything that was pressing upon their minds. They met my wish: and I have never had one cause to complain of want of reverence, nor yet of failure of boldness and freedom to state frankly what they were thinking and feeling. And in this way I affirm that I have learned more myself than I have imparted. Again and again the wish has come into my mind when I have left those classes: 'Would to God that anything I have said to them has been as useful to them as what they have said to me has been to me. . . . I may speak also of part of our teaching in which we have departed most from the example of the mechanics' institutes. From a natural wish to avoid party irritation they resolved that they would avoid politics altogether. We have felt that we could not avoid them. If the nettle is apt to sting, we must grasp it hard that it may not sting us. To have shunned politics would have been to shun the subject which gave the working men the strongest assurances that they were English citizens and English men."¹

The Committee which set to work in January 1854 to consider the plan for a Working Men's College in London included Mr. F. D. Maurice as its president, Lord Goderich, M.P. (now the Marquis of Ripon), Mr. Wm. Johnson of Eton College, the Rev. Charles Kingsley, Mr. J. M. Ludlow, Mr. A. Macmillan, Mr. Vansittart Neale, and Mr. John Westlake. The Committee agreed on certain maxims and asked Mr. Maurice to outline a plan for them. On February 7th he submitted a printed statement in which he recapitulated the maxims suggested by the Committee. The first ran as follows:

"Our position as members of a society which affirms the operations of trade and industry to be under a moral law—a law concerning the relations of men to each other—obliges us to regard social, political or, to use a more general phrase, *human* studies as the primary part of our education."

This is the keynote of the work of the Working Men's College, and it represents the ideal which Maurice and his friends worked out, at a critical time in English social history, for the adult education of English working men and working women.

The third maxim ran thus:

"Adult males (that is to say, males at all events not younger than 16) should be contemplated first and chiefly in our education: though it was thought very desirable that provision should in due course be made for the teaching of boys and of females."

1. *Ibid.*, pp. 31, 32.

The fourth, fifth and sixth maxims were the following :

4. It was agreed that the education should be regular and organic, not taking the form of mere miscellaneous lectures or even of classes not related to each other.

5. It was agreed that the teachers, and by degrees the pupils, should form an organic body, so that the name College should be at least as applicable to our institution as to University College or to King's College.

6. It was determined that the College should, in some sense or other, immediately or ultimately, be self-governed and self-supported.¹

The completely co-educational plan adopted at the Sheffield People's College (it is not clear with what degree of continued success) did not commend itself to Mr. Maurice. He thought that the education of the workwoman should in part be joined with that of the workman but in part be separate. The language classes, the music classes, might be the same for both, the starting points of knowledge being the same. In politics they would not be the same, nor perhaps in ethics. It is quite clear that women should have lessons in social life and order as well as in ethics, taking domestic life for the ground. They should also have lectures upon health, though I suppose the physician would feel the necessity of giving these an entirely different character from those he addressed to men.

On the subject of the self-support and self-government of the new College, Mr. Maurice took a view rather different from that which had been acted upon in the case of the People's College at Sheffield. With the principle that the work of the College should be carefully guarded from outside interference, he of course entirely agreed.

"I should most strongly object to any interference of patrons, ecclesiastical or civil, and of the outlying public, secular or religious, with the arrangement of our studies or with the subsequent management of the College. And if we do not mean to submit to their dictation, we must not ask for their help. . . . I perfectly agree therefore with the Sheffield principle that the education should be paid for and that we should not incur any expenses which the payments of the pupils will not nearly meet. I wish also that the pupils should feel themselves a part of the College adopted into it from the first, any of them capable of holding offices in it hereafter."

1. Quoted in Dr. Furnivall's *History of the Working Men's College in the Working Men's College Magazine*, 1860, p. 146.

But at this point he parted company with the more extreme theory of self-government adopted at the Sheffield People's College. Mr. Maurice continued :

"I would not let the pupils have the least voice in determining what we shall teach or not teach, or how we shall teach. We may have social meetings with them; we may have conversations with them individually; but no education will go on if we have general tumultuous assemblies to discuss what has been done or what is to be done. We who begin the institution must claim authority over it, and not hastily resign our authority, however we may admit others by degrees to share it, and however willing we may be to creep out of it when the institution can stand without us. That we may preserve this position, I believe it is necessary that our teaching should be gratuitous; all the fees going at first to the procuring of the necessary machinery for the institution."¹

Dr. Furnivall, Mr. Ludlow, and others strongly felt that the governing body of the College should from the first consist of equal numbers of teachers and working men. It was decided, however, that at first only the teachers should be on the governing body, working men to be gradually admitted to the extent of one-third of its number. Dr. Furnivall, writing in 1860, said: "At the end of our sixth year we have two of them, one-fourteenth of our whole number, but the finance of the College is practically controlled by students only."

In June and July, 1854, Mr. Maurice delivered in Willis' Rooms, London, a course of six lectures, which served as a public announcement of the aims of the new College.² He pointed out that the education of children and the education of adults were two aspects of one national problem, and that both must be grappled with. In the fifth and sixth lecture he spoke in detail of the Studies and of the Teachers in a Working College. The College was opened in the following November at 31 Red Lion Square, Mr. Maurice having given the inaugural address in St. Martin's Hall, Long Acre, on October 30th. At the inaugural ad-

1. "Working Men's College Magazine," 1860, p. 165.

2. Published in his volume "Learning and Working." Cambridge: Macmillan, 1855.

dress there was a full meeting. As the visitors entered the hall, each was presented with a copy of Mr. Ruskin's chapter on 'the Nature of Gothic Architecture and herein of the functions of the workman in art,' which he and his publishers allowed Dr. Furnivall to reprint "for the purpose of showing what a sort of fellow one of our teachers was." Any working man above sixteen years of age, who could read and write and knew the first four rules of arithmetic, was eligible as a member of the College. The College was established especially for manual workers but other students were not refused. The founders "desired to be in communication with the existing Universities." "The Universities, we hope, will receive persons coming with certificates from our College as readily as from any other, and will grant our students degrees, provided they go through the necessary examinations. How the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge and London may be disposed to accomplish this object, we cannot of course foresee, but we are confident that no fee will hinder working men from having all the advantages which their fellow countrymen possess."¹ This declaration links the new movement to that of University extension and reform, which had grown in force from the year 1831, in which Sir William Hamilton began his strictures on the English Universities, and had culminated in the appointment of the two University Commissions in 1850 and in the publication of their reports in 1852.

The subjects of the classes held in the opening session of the Working Men's College were thirteen in number. Three of the courses, viz., those on the Gospel of St. John (held on Sunday evenings), on Political Terms illustrated by English Literature, and on the Reign of King John, illus-

1. These words are quoted from the original circular of the Working Men's College, issued in 1854. The circular is printed in the "Working Men's College Magazine," 1860, pp. 166-7.

trated by Shakespeare's Play, were conducted by Mr. Maurice. Mr. Ruskin took the Drawing class; Dr. Furnivall that in English grammar; Mr. Walsh and Mr. T. Hughes that in Public Health; Mr. Brewer that in the Geography of England as connected with its History; Mr. Westlake and Mr. Litchfield those in Arithmetic and Algebra; Mr. Hose that in Geometry; Mr. Locock that in Natural Philosophy and Astronomy; Mr. McLennan that in Machinery; and Mr. Ludlow that in the Law of Partnership. After Christmas, Dante Gabriel Rossetti, Lowes Dickinson and E. Vansittart Neale were among the teachers. In the third term, Mountstuart Grant Duff joined the staff, and in the fourth Thomas Woolner, the sculptor, began a modelling class. Among the many who took classes at the College during the first seven years of its work were J. Llewelyn Davies, Charles Kingsley, E. Bowen, Godfrey Lushington, Frederic Harrison, and Ford Madox Brown. In the long history of adult education in England, there is no chapter comparable with this.

In 1857 the College was moved to 45 Great Ormond Street, where it remained till the recent opening of the new buildings in Crowndale Road, St. Pancras.¹ Throughout its long career, it has remained true to the aims of its founders. It places a liberal education within the reach of working men. The teaching of the humanities is its main purpose. As its present Principal, Professor A. V. Dicey, has said, the College is 'grounded on the invaluable combination of self-help and mutual aid.'

The founders wished to see similar Colleges established in every town in England. A Working Men's College was founded in Cambridge in 1855, largely through the labours

1. The history of the College is admirably told in the volume "The Working Men's Magazine, 1854—1904," edited by the Rev. J. Llewelyn Davis, and published by Messrs. Macmillan in 1904.

of Dr. Harvey Goodwin, afterwards Bishop of Carlisle. One was opened in Ancoats (a working-class quarter of Manchester) in January, 1857; one in Wolverhampton in October, 1857; another in Manchester in January, 1858; and one in Salford in May, 1858. Others were at work in Halifax and in Oxford (the Working Men's Educational Institution) in January, 1859, but the date of their foundation is not known to me. A Working Men's College was founded in Liverpool in 1860, and another (now called the Working Men's College but originally established under the name of the Working Men's Institute) was founded at Leicester by Canon Vaughan in 1862. There were also others, as for example at Nottingham, but no complete record of the movement has yet been published.

The great work which Maurice and his friends accomplished was the setting up of a new and more liberal ideal of adult education for men and women engaged during the daytime in the duties of the workshop, the office or the home. This new ideal has had a far-reaching influence both on University opinion and on educational effort in its different forms throughout the country. The thoughts to which the founders of the Working Men's College in London gave expression both in their writings and in their practical work as teachers were the outcome of a new social movement. This social movement inspired the founders of the Working Men's College with the conviction that 'the cultivation of social feeling should go hand in hand with the pursuit of knowledge.'¹

The same current of thought and feeling affected the work of the Young Men's Christian Associations and of many of the Mechanics' Institutes. It appeared later in the University extension movement. It has led to such

1. These words occur in the report of the Salford Working Men's College, January, 1859.

valuable educational developments as the Ancoats Recreation. It has been continuous in its influence, and one result of it can be traced in the plea, put forward by Dr. Paton of Nottingham in 1885, and ever since pressed by him upon educational administrators and upon public opinion, that no system of evening classes can fully meet the needs of the community unless it includes the provision of social institutes, in which the idea of brotherhood and fellow service permeates educational and recreative work alike.

A more recent outcome of the same current of educational influence is the establishment of Ruskin College at Oxford. The College was founded in 1899 with the design of giving working men, and especially those likely to take a leading position in the labour movement, an education which will help them in acquiring the knowledge essential to intelligent citizenship and increase their influence for good among their fellows. The aim of the College is thus stated by its Council:

"Hitherto the opportunity of gaining an educated insight into the problems of our life and generation has been beyond the hope of most working men. Yet these men are our citizens, our voters, and the makers of our laws. Whether they will use their powers with judgment or under the influence of prejudices born of ignorance, depends upon their knowledge. It is in order that they may be able impartially to study the great social and political problems of the day that Ruskin College exists.

The endeavour is to create in each student a feeling of responsibility. He is taught to regard the education which he receives, not as a means of personal advancement, but as a trust for the good of others. He learns in order that he may raise and not rise out of the class to which he belongs. The work is carried on in two ways:—

(1) By the education at Ruskin College, Oxford; this is intended for those who show special promise, who may become working-men Members of Parliament, and officials of Trade Unions and Co-operative Societies; by this means they are enabled to come to Oxford and study the problems which they have to solve.

(2) By the Correspondence School. By means of this all who are interested in the problems of our time are enabled to study the subjects taught at Ruskin College, by home reading."

The courses of instruction for the year begin on January 15th and end on December 15th, but students may enter at

any time for a period of not less than a month. Each student is expected to work two hours a day at cleaning, etc., and to take his turn as delegate, as no servants are kept, except a cook. Each student must send two testimonials of good character and a certificate stating that he suffers from no serious physical defect. There are no examinations or creed tests, religious or political. The cost of residence, covering board, lodging, and education, is £52 per annum; for a less period than one year, £1. 5s. per week. There are no extra charges. Sometimes a fund is available for rendering financial assistance to those who are unable to pay the full fees.

The courses of instruction are so arranged as to form a connected whole. They include classes in Logic, Ethics, Political Economy, Industrial History, Sociology, the History of Social Movements, Political and Social Movements, Public Administration and the Relation between the State and Education. There are also classes in Essay Writing, English, French, German, Arithmetic, in the art of Public Speaking, and in Phonetics (English pronunciation). An essay of not more than 700 words is expected from every student each week during residence. This essay is corrected both in style of writing and accuracy of statement.

Stress is laid by the Council upon the educational value of

"the daily discipline of social life. The student's opinions are criticised, his eccentricities are a subject for banter. He has to learn the noble art of give and take. This learning to live with men in a common social life is one of the best things the College does for the students. . . . Most of the domestic work of the College is in the hands of the students. Every week they hold a House Meeting and appoint their own officers. Each student passes in turn through the posts of official life. There are no servants except a cook, so that each student by washing up or scrubbing floors learns how exacting are the claims of household drudgery unless relieved by a simple life."

The Council of the College includes well-known University men and leaders of the trades union and co-operative

movements. Great sacrifices are made by many of the students in order to reside in the College. During the first six years of its work, 232 students have come into residence, the greater number for one year. The list of students includes engineers, miners, spinners, weavers, blacksmiths, house painters, compositors, chairmakers, and representatives of many other trades. Ninety-five thousand members of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers have raised £1,350 for the College by means of four levies of one penny each. The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants has subscribed £300 to the Building Fund and has established three scholarships. The Northern Counties Weavers have given £90 and two scholarships. Subscriptions have also been received from the London Society of Compositors, the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society, and other working men's organisations. In many cases a student has been enabled to come to the College by the liberality of his fellow-workers.

(5) THE EDUCATIONAL WORK OF WORKING MEN CO-OPERATORS.

The Co-operative movement in Great Britain received a strong educational impulse from the work of Robert Owen (1771—1858).¹ But the first educational effort made in the English working-class co-operative movement in its present form was that of the Rochdale Pioneers (1844). These twenty working men were mostly Socialists of the Owen school and Chartists. From the first they set aside out of their margin of profit a fund for education. Since that time, the Co-operative societies formed upon the Rochdale plan have played an important part in the adult education of English workmen. At the present time the educational machinery of the Co-operative movement consists of the following bodies:

1. The best account of Owen's work is in "Robert Owen, a Biography," by Frank Podmore. London: Hutchinson, 1906.

- (1) The Central Educational Committee of the Co-operative Union, dealing with the whole movement, and formed from the Sectional Boards, with representatives of the Educational Committees' Associations and the Women's Guild.
- (2) Sectional Boards and District Associations.
- (3) Educational Committees' Associations, one in each section, working, if possible, in connection with the Sectional Boards and District Associations.
- (4) Educational Committees and Women's Guild connected with local societies.

The objects of Co-operative education are defined as :

"primarily, the formation of co-operative character and opinions by teaching the history, theory, and principles of the movement, with economics and industrial and constitutional history in so far as they have bearing on Co-operation ; and, secondarily, though not necessarily of less import, the training of men and women to take part in industrial and social reforms and civic life generally.

It deals with the rights and duties of men and women in their capacities as Co-operators, Workers, and Citizens."

It is no longer felt to be necessary for co-operative education committees to establish general libraries or to organize new evening schools or technical classes of the ordinary type, as these are now provided for under the Education and Libraries Acts. The Union is therefore endeavouring to concentrate the educational work of the movement upon the principles and methods of co-operation studied in the light of the economic development of the people. The co-operators give special encouragement to the work of the Working Men's College (London), Ruskin College, (Oxford) and the Worker's Education Association. The Union has founded, in memory of the great services of Edward Vansittart Neale and Thomas Hughes, two scholarships open for competition for sons of co-operators, and tenable at Oriel College, Oxford. They have also founded two prizes of £2, called the "Blandford Travelling Scholarships," which are awarded to the most successful candidates in the highest grades of the examinations held by the Union on the subject of co-operation. The Co-operative Union arranges classes in economic and industrial history, in economics, in citizenship, and in subjects closely

connected with the history and methods of co-operation. It also encourages the formation of classes in which teachers of co-operative classes may study the art of teaching. The educational work of many of the co-operative societies has been largely social in character. Mention should be made of the influence of the Women's Co-operative Guild in furthering the educational side of the co-operative movement.

(6) THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

The world-wide organisation of the Y.M.C.A. has sprung from the gathering of a few young men for prayer and Bible reading, in 1844, in a bedroom on the premises of Messrs. Hitchcock and Rogers, a firm of retail silk mercers on Ludgate Hill, London. The leader of the little group was George Williams (afterwards Sir George Williams), the son of a farmer in the hills above Dulverton, in Somerset. A man of strongly religious nature, George Williams drew into friendship with himself a few of the other young assistants for Bible reading and prayer. One day, when crossing Blackfriars Bridge he mentioned to a friend, Edward Beaumont, his desire to extend the benefits of the Young Men's Society which had been formed by his efforts at Messrs. Hitchcock and Rogers, to every drapery establishment throughout London, and twelve young friends met together on June 6th, 1844, "for the purpose of forming a Society, the object of which is to influence young men to spread the Redeemer's Kingdom amongst those by whom they are surrounded."¹

In the following July a circular was issued which thus stated the purposes of the plan.

"We have looked with deep concern and anxiety upon the almost totally neglected spiritual condition of the mass of young men engaged in

1. An extract from the diary of one who was present, quoted in "The Life of Sir George Williams," by J. E. Hodder Williams, Hodder and Stoughton, 1906, page 112.

the pursuits of business, especially those connected with our trade, and feel desirous, by the assistance of God, to make some effort in order to improve it. . . . We have seriously and carefully consulted as to the best means by which to accomplish so great a work; and we have come to the decision that there is nothing so calculated to discountenance immorality and vice, and to promote a spirit of serious inquiry among the class in which our lot is cast, as the introduction of some religious service among them, which they shall be invited to attend. . . . A society is now formed, the object of which is the promotion of the spiritual welfare of young men engaged in the drapery and other trades, by the introduction of religious services among them. We earnestly entreat your Christian co-operation in this great work."

The name of the Young Men's Christian Association was given to the new Society. There were at this time at least 150,000 young assistants living in houses of retail trade. Their hours were very long, often from seven in the morning till late at night. Outside the ordinary work of the religious bodies, nothing was done in any organized way to provide for their spiritual or intellectual interests.¹ The three aims of the new Association were, Comradeship, United Prayer and the Study of the Bible. The movement spread rapidly, and in the intervals of an exacting business life George Williams devoted himself with extraordinary zeal and generosity to the work of the Association. He became the intimate friend of Lord Shaftesbury, whose support did much in furthering the work. At the time of the Exhibition of 1851 (a date of importance in other branches of English Education) efforts were made to interest visitors from all parts of the world in the work of the Y.M.C.A. The London branch outgrew building after building. After some critical years between 1855 and 1864, the Y.M.C.A. rapidly developed. At the jubilee of the foundation, held in England in 1894, delegates attended from all parts of the world, a fact which showed the far-reaching influence of the association's work.

The American Y.M.C.A. was founded in 1851, and has developed educational classes for general and technical

1. Ibid, p. 56.

education much more extensively than, with a few exceptions, has been the case in the United Kingdom.

Mr. Hodder Williams writes:

"It may be predicted with confidence that future years will find the educational work of the Association organised and maintained with greater efficiency than at present. It is true that at the time of writing this department is lacking in signs of immediate growth. This is largely owing to the fact that members have been discouraged by seeing the educational work of the Association in Great Britain brought into competition with the evening classes established by the Educational authorities. There are, however, not wanting signs that the Association is beginning to realise that a wide field is open to-day for the provision of specialised forms of instruction designed to fit young men for the profession or business in which they are engaged. That there are great possibilities of successful work in this direction has been demonstrated in recent years by the Central Association, which by making provision for the training of young men for the Civil Service, and preparing candidates for the examinations of the Bankers' Institute and of the London Chamber of Commerce, has secured for this department a degree of prosperity far exceeding that obtained when the curriculum was confined to ordinary commercial subjects."

A further development of the work of the Association has been the establishment of boys' sections in connection with some of the larger branches. These endeavour to meet the special needs of boys between 13 and 17 years of age.

(7) NIGHT SCHOOLS AND EVENING CLASSES UNDER GOVERNMENT INSPECTION.

Night schools first received pecuniary aid from the Government in 1851. But from the first beginnings of what is now the Board of Education's work, the Government inspectors watched their progress in different parts of the country.

The Committee of Council on Education was established in 1839, and in the Department's first Report (1839-40) Mr. Tremenhare, in his report on the state of elementary education in the mining district of South Wales, stated that the number of adults attending evening schools was about 90.¹ In the mining districts of Durham and Northumberland, Mr. John Allen Young (1840) that

1. Minutes of Committee of Council and Education, 1839-40, p. 182.

almost all the "common day schools" conducted by masters for private profit and attended by boys and girls, were also opened during the winter between the hours of 7 and 9 "for the instruction of pitmen and others not able to attend during the day." Mr. Allen adds that "the owners of collieries are, in most cases, willing to provide their labourers with a room which may be used as a day and night school during the week, and on Sunday is opened to one or two sects (and in some instances three) in succession for the purposes of public worship."¹ The Rev. Baptist Noel reported in 1840, evidently quoting in part from the Reports of the Manchester Statistical Society, the following attendance at evening schools in five large towns:—

Birmingham	(1838)	563
Manchester.	(1834)	1,458
Liverpool	(1836)	548
Salford	(1835)	526
Bury	(1835)	151

He speaks of evening schools as useful to young persons whose early education has been neglected and who want to learn the three R's, but adds that "the evening school which only affords instruction for four hours in the week, and that when the scholars are jaded with 12 or 13 hours of toil, cannot educate those who attend it."¹

In 1844 the Rev. F. C. Cook reports that Mr. Geary, a manufacturer in Norwich, "allows no youth to attend his factory who is unable to read, and compels their attendance at an evening school until they arrive at years of maturity."²

In the following years a considerable increase in the number of evening schools in the North of England is

1. "Minutes, 1840-1," pp. 166 and 182.

2. "Minutes, 1844," vol. ii. p. 166.

reported by the inspectors. "Night schools are usually under the teaching of the national schoolmaster, and superintended by the clergyman of the place. The hours of instruction are generally from 7 or 8 p.m. to 9 and 10. In many places the young people of either sex come on alternate evenings." ¹

In 1849, the Rev. W. J. Kennedy, in his report on schools in the North-western district (Cumberland, Westmorland and Lancashire), urges that more should be made of the evening schools. But he adds: "I see no way to bring about this vital measure except by a large special assistance from the Committee of Council; derived from the Parliamentary grant for Education, or from an educational rate. The voluntary system has done a vast deal, but it has nearly, if not quite, run to the end of its tether." ² This is the first definite proposal for the payment of Government grant to night schools that I have found. But the idea was in the air at the time, and it is probable that Mr. Kennedy's suggestion had been anticipated by others.

An important part in the furtherance of night classes had been taken during the previous years (1844 onwards) by the promoters of the Ragged Schools. A passage in Miss Mary Carpenter's *Reformatory Schools for Children of the perishing and dangerous classes and for juvenile offenders* ³ gives an account of the rise of evening ragged schools in London. The movement was begun by some Sunday school teachers in London.

"The first attempt to concentrate their efforts was made in April, 1844, by a meeting, held at St. Giles' Ragged School. These teachers, having often observed with regret the many children that are excluded from the regular Sunday or Day School in consequence of their ragged and filthy condition and also the great numbers who constantly infest

1. "Minutes, 1845," vol. ii. p. 176.

2. "Minutes, 1848-9-50," vol. ii. p. 190-1.

3. London: Gilpin, 1851, pp. 110.

our streets and alleys to idle, to steal or to do mischief, resolved to establish schools expressly for that destitute and depraved class in the very localities, courts and alleys where they abound. . . . The rent and other expenses were generally paid by the teachers themselves, sometimes by one or more benevolent individuals in the locality of the schools. There was no lack of pupils : numbers very often could not be admitted for want of room or want of teachers, and a policeman in some cases was kept at the door to drive away those who wished to force themselves in. . . . The main object of the Ragged School Union was to teach the children of the lowest poor to read the Word of God and to understand its simple truths ; to bring destitute and neglected children under some moral and religious influence by means of schools where such children could receive, once or twice a week or oftener, some simple knowledge of their duties as responsible beings and as creatures born to live for ever."

The following table shows the extent of the work during the years 1844—48 :

Year.	Schools.		Teachers.		Children.		Amount Collected.		
							£	s.	d.
1844	...	20	...	200	...	2,000	...	61	0 0
1845	...	26	...	250	...	2,600	...	320	0 0
1846	...	44	...	454	...	4,776	...	824	6 10
1847	...	62	...	902	...	12,823	...	1,174	4 1
1848	...	82	...	1,053	...	17,249	...	4,142	16 8

The Ragged Schools attempted, with great earnestness of purpose, a very difficult work. But it was hard to find the necessary number of teachers who were qualified to maintain discipline and to influence the pupils. Many of the best teachers were women but the schools were in degraded districts where it was difficult for women teachers to go at night. The children's attendance was for short periods and instruction was but for one or two evenings a week. Gradually the work became more systematic. The schools were opened more frequently some on every night of the week. Industrial training was added in many schools, and one paid teacher was added to the staff of nearly all of them. Then Free Day Schools were established. One at Bristol was well-known. The boys learnt shoemaking and tailoring. It was intended for the gratuitous instruction of such young persons only as cannot attend the other schools in Bristol owing to the poverty of

their parents or their own want of character or necessary clothing.' The rules said that 'The fundamental principles of religion in which all professed Christians agree shall form the basis of the instruction given. All sectarian theology shall be carefully avoided. The lessons of the school shall include the most common branches of useful knowledge, instruction in some industrial occupation and the inculcation of cleanly, orderly habits. No corporal punishment, or holding up to public shame or ridicule shall be made use of.'¹

The decisive step in regard to the subsidising of evening schools was taken by Government in 1851. In that year the Committee of Council on Education decided to encourage the combination of evening schools with existing elementary day schools, and were prepared to allow the usual Government grant to be paid to an additional certificated teacher, engaged by the managers of an elementary school under inspection, if employed morning *or* afternoon in the day school and afterwards in the evening school. But they would not sanction any arrangement by which the same teacher taught in the morning, afternoon and evening school. An evening school, supplementary to a day school under inspection, would be allowed to receive grants for the purchase of books and maps at reduced prices.²

In 1852, the Committee of Council announced their readiness to approve of an assistant teacher (*i.e.*, a pupil teacher who had completed his apprenticeship) taking charge of an evening school provided that he worked under the headmaster's general direction and that the latter were present sufficiently often to be really responsible for the state of the school. In January, 1853, the

1. This seems to refer to Joseph Lancaster's methods of school discipline.

2. "Minutes, 1851-2," vol. i. pp. 74-5.

rule forbidding a master to take an evening school in the winter, in addition to a morning and afternoon class, was relaxed. At the same time, grants for books and maps were allowed in the case of an evening school established independently of a day school, but the other Government grants were not permitted in that case, as such a school was held to be unsuitable for the apprenticeship of pupil teachers.

In 1855, the assistance to evening schools was further increased. A school already in receipt of an annual grant might obtain for an evening school in connection with it (1) augmentation of salary for a second certificated teacher; or (2) stipend for an assistant if the attendance amounted to over 50 during the day and to more than 20 in the evening. Or, if a suitable industrial class were organised under a gardener, superior labourer or other competent person, (or, in the case of a small school, were taken by the schoolmaster himself) the day school teacher would be allowed to conduct the evening school also; or a grant of not less than £5 or more than £10 would be made to an evening school teacher of proper character and attainments, aged between 20 and 40, teaching for not fewer than 60 nights in the year, but not employed in the day school. The fees paid by night scholars were required to equal or exceed the Government grant.

In the report of the Rev. W. J. Kennedy on schools in Lancashire, in 1857, special mention is made of the encouragement which had been given to the establishment of evening schools by the Lancashire and Cheshire Union of Mechanics' Institutions. In the establishment of the Union, Sir J. P. Kay Shuttleworth had taken an active part. Its main objects were stated to be (1) "first and principally, to encourage and improve evening schools—a matter of the greatest importance amongst a population

which goes to work so early in life as the factory operatives in Lancashire;" (2) "to examine the scholars of the evening schools periodically and award certificates and prizes to those amongst them who attain a certain proficiency." The Union appointed a number of evening school teachers, paying them a salary in addition to the £10 which they received from the Government grant, and also "a very able certificated and scientific master to organise and superintend all the institutions in union and to give lectures to them periodically."¹

In 1858, further assistance was given to evening schools by the decision of the Committee of Council to allow scholars, attending a properly organised night school for fifty nights in the year, to be added to the number of day scholars for whom the school might receive capitation grants. The rule, however, that the sum received in fees must equal the Government grant was found to make the establishment of evening schools impossible in many villages.

Another branch of evening school-work must here be mentioned, as destined afterwards to become of great importance. The Science and Art Department, which in 1856 had been severed from the Board of Trade and placed in a co-ordinate position with the Education Department under the Lord President of the Council, responded to the educational need of the industrial part of the nation and set on foot a new system of evening classes in scientific subjects. Its grants were paid towards the support of these classes on the results of written examinations conducted under the authority of the Department. The opportunity of conducting the classes was welcomed by a large number of elementary schoolmasters. Those wishing to hold classes were required to pass the spécial examination of

1. "Minutes, 1857-8," pp. 407-14.

the Department, and thus received certificates of competency to teach. The first examination for teachers was held in 1859, and the first general examination for students in 1861. Many workmen who saw the importance of gaining some elementary knowledge of science in order to qualify themselves for higher positions in the workshop resorted to the evening classes as a step towards attaining their purpose. Thus from 1859 onwards (until the two divisions of the Education Department were effectively united) there were two separate categories of evening classes receiving aid from Government, each from a different side of the same central authority. The evening science classes have been one of the chief means of furthering technical instruction in England.

To return to the elementary evening schools. The Code of 1860 summarised the previous regulations for evening schools, continuing the payment not exceeding £10 or less than £5 to evening teachers not otherwise remunerated out of the grant for education on condition (1) that if the evening school was attended by scholars of both sexes the teacher must be a married man; if by scholars of one sex alone must be of that sex; (2) that he must be over 20, unless previously engaged in teaching, and under 40 when appointed; (3) that he must produce certificates of previous good character and aptitude for teaching, and satisfy the inspector in a written examination; (4) that the sum received in fees in any year was equal to the Government grant; (5) that the school had been open at least 60 times during the year, and (6) that the teacher was favourably reported on by the managers and the inspector. Capitation grants were allowed on evening scholars who had attended 50 times at least, who were upwards of 12 years of age, and who had not been reckoned among day scholars.

In 1862 important changes were made in the regulations for evening schools. For the first time the position of the schools was clearly defined as continuative of the day school work. Grants to teachers were withdrawn and given to the school only in the form of capitation grants on average attendance and on the result of an examination in reading, writing and arithmetic. The attendance grant was 2s. 6d. per scholar. The grant for every scholar who passed the examination after attending more than 24 evening meetings of the school was 5s., 1s. 8d. being forfeited for failure to pass in any one of the three subjects. No evening attendance might be reckoned for any scholar under 12. Restrictions on day-school teachers taking evening classes were withdrawn. The evening school, the Committee of Council stated in their instructions to inspectors in the Revised Code, 1862, "should differ in nothing from the morning or afternoon meetings, except in the scholars who attend. Its business is not secondary, but continued elementary, instruction. A few scholars here and there may be fit for more advanced instruction, and may be glad to find at the evening meeting a room in which they can study and obtain assistance. . . . As the object of attendance in the evening is to fix and perfect elementary knowledge, scholars who have passed under Standard VI. are not precluded from being examined again and from bringing grants to the schools by their examination."

Thus the Revised Code of 1862 definitely assigned to the evening school the duties of an elementary continuation school. The attendance at evening schools rapidly increased under the operation of the new regulations. The average number of pupils in attendance in 1863 was 14,073. It steadily rose till it reached the number of 83,457 in 1870-71, when the whole situation had been altered by

the passing of the Elementary Education Act of 1870. These years 1851-70 form the first period in the history of evening schools under government inspection. The second extends from 1870 to 1891 in which year the Education Acts were so amended as to allow elementary education not to form the principal part of the curriculum of an evening school. The different stages in the history of the schools during this second period may be thus summarised.

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 defined a public elementary school as a school at which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given. An evening school receiving grant was reckoned as an elementary school. Therefore its work was confined in the main to elementary subjects. Before long, this limitation began to affect the evening schools. The great development of elementary day schools naturally caused a falling off in the number of pupils requiring elementary instruction in evening schools. The numbers in average attendance at evening schools accordingly began to decline in 1871-2, in which year it was 66,388, as compared with 83,457 in the previous year. The total fell steadily (with a slight rise in 1876-9) till 1884-5, when it stood at 24,233.

In the meantime the grants to evening schools had been increased in 1871 to 4s. per scholar in average attendance if the school had been open 80 times in the evening, and 7s. 6d. for each scholar who passed the examination in reading, writing and arithmetic (2s. 6d. for each subject). But at the same time it was decided that attendances were not to be reckoned for any scholar over eighteen. In 1876, the upper age limit was extended to twenty-one.

In 1882, important changes were made in the evening school regulations. Attendance as a rule was not to be reckoned for any scholar under 14 or over 21, though children under 14 who were exempt from the legal obligation to

attend day school were recognised as scholars in an evening school. Grants were no longer confined to the elementary subjects. In addition to a fixed grant of 4s. or 6s., a grant (amounting to 2s.) on the examination of individual scholars in any of the elementary or additional (*i.e.*, class or specific) subjects was paid for each scholar passing in each subject. But no scholar was allowed to be examined in additional subjects alone. The rule that everyone must be individually examined in reading, writing and arithmetic was still enforced.

In 1886 a Royal Commission was appointed, with Lord Gross as Chairman, to inquire into the working of the Education Acts. The Commissioners heard evidence about the evening schools. Their findings (given on p. 94-96 below) led to great changes being made in the law as it affected the courses of study in evening schools under government inspection. In 1890 a revolutionary change was made in the regulations. The Education Act of 1870, which defines an elementary school as "a school or department of a school at which elementary education is the principal part of the education there given," had limited the Parliamentary grant to public elementary schools. The Education Code Act of 1890 enacted that "it shall not be required as a condition of a Parliamentary grant to an evening school that elementary education shall be the principal part of the education there given." By the Code of 1890, scholars in evening schools were excused examination in elementary subjects if they produced certificates that they had been scholars in a public elementary school and had passed Standard V. in the elementary subjects. The numbers in average attendance at evening schools rose from 43,347 in 1889-90 to 51,974 in 1890-1, and thus the second period in the history of the schools closed with encouragement and hope.

The third period (1891 to the present day) has been one of rapid development and differentiation in the work of evening classes in England.

In 1893 Mr. Acland, then Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education, introduced a new evening school code, which marks an epoch in the history of this branch of education in England and Wales. The old conception of the evening school was boldly swept away. Attendance of persons over twenty-one years of age was recognised for grants. No scholars were compelled to take the elementary subjects. Grants were paid, as in day schools, upon the instruction of the school as a whole instead of upon the attainments of individual scholars. Fixed grants were paid on an aggregate number of hours' instruction received, instead of upon average attendance. Examination by the inspector on a fixed day was abolished, and visits without notice were substituted. Instead of grants for individual passes, variable grants were paid for the time devoted to each subject.

No scholar might be entered or continue on the register who was under fourteen years of age, unless such scholar was deemed by the Department to be exempt from the legal obligation to attend school.

In 1897 the Code laid it down that the total amount of grant paid to an evening school might not exceed the greater of the two sums named below, viz:—

(a) A sum equal to 17s. 6d. for each unit of average attendance (a fraction of a unit, if it reaches 0·5, being counted as an additional unit).

(b) The total income of the school from all sources whatever other than the grant.

The numbers and the attendance at evening schools rapidly increased in consequence of the liberal treatment thus accorded by the State. The numbers of inspected

evening schools rose from 1,977 in 1892-3 to 5,263 in 1899-1900; the numbers in average attendance rose from 81,068 to 206,335; and the numbers on the registers from 115,582 to 509,251.

But new administrative developments were now pending. The Technical Instruction Act of 1889 had armed the County Councils, established in 1888, with educational powers. The Local Taxation (Custom and Excise) Act of 1890 had given them considerable funds available for technical and commercial education. The new County and County Borough Committees for Technical Instruction began to develop evening classes in scientific and commercial subjects, and to draw grants from the Science and Art Department at South Kensington. For many years the evening classes under the School Boards derived aid from the same source, as well as from the grants paid by the Education Department. Thus a clash between the two co-existing local authorities, each operating in the sphere of evening school work, became inevitable. The question at issue was whether evening schools were to be regarded as part of the elementary school system or as part of the system of technical and higher education. The truth is that the purely continuative parts of the evening school work are most conveniently administered in intimate relation with that of elementary schools, while the more advanced and technical developments of the evening schools are appropriately considered as part of higher and technical education. The line, however, between the two parts of the work is not easy to draw, as clever youths can pass on at once from the day school to higher work in the evening school. The real solution was the unification of all educational administration in the district in the hands of one local authority. But this had not yet come, and consequently there was a period of conflict.

The question of powers was brought to an issue by the action of Mr. Barclay Cockerton, district auditor under the Local Government Board, who, in 1899, disallowed certain expenditure which had been incurred by the London School Board in respect of Science and Art classes in day schools and in evening continuation schools. The case (*Regina v. Cockerton*) was tried before Mr. Justice Wills and Mr. Justice Kennedy in the Queen's Bench Division, and the judgment given on December 20th, 1900, confirmed the auditor's view. The questions before the Court for decision were (1) whether it was within the powers of the School Board to provide Science and Art Schools or classes, either in day schools or in evening continuation schools; (2) whether it was lawful for them to pay the expenses of maintaining those schools or classes out of the School Board rate or School Fund. In pronouncing judgment, Mr. Justice Wills thus stated the case as regards evening schools:—"It appears to me to have been perfectly within the competence of the Department to lay down the conditions under which it would make grants and I am not in the least surprised that where it found schools *de facto* fulfilling those conditions the grant followed as a matter of course. But to argue, as has been done, that such action on the part of the Department sets the School Board free to teach, at the expense of the ratepayers, to adults and to children indiscriminately the higher mathematics, advanced chemistry, (both theoretical and practical), political economy, art of a kind wholly beyond anything that can be taught to children, French, German, history, I know not what, appears to me to be the *ne plus ultra* of extravagance. If the Acts of which the primary object was elementary education, and the whole object was education for children, are to be transformed into Acts for the higher education—education of a kind

usual rather in a college of a university than in a school—of grown up men and women, it must be done by Act of Parliament and not by a stroke of the pen of a Government Department. The Department has never affected to do anything of the kind, or to do more than lay down the conditions under which a grant of money may be earned. The extravagance is in the application which has been made by the School Boards of the successive developments of the Code. The Department is under no restrictions as to the conditions under which it shall grant public money, Parliament being at liberty to withhold or ratify the grant. But it is the strangest of arguments to say that because the Department is prepared to grant money for teaching adults to any school in a position to teach them, it follows that a board, created and existing to supply education for children and for no other purpose, has a right to spend money out of the rates for teaching those who are not children.” Finally, he answered the two questions before the Court as follows:—“As to question 1, my answer is, that it is not within the power of the Board to provide, at the expense of the ratepayers, science and art schools or classes in day schools; as to question 2, that science and art classes in evening continuation schools are as much beyond the scope of rate-aided education as in day schools, but that in both such educational work may be carried on by the School Board provided the whole of the funds required for it are furnished from sources other than contributions from the rates.”¹

This decision, which was upheld by the Court of Appeal, led to the issue by the Board of Education of a minute, dated July 3rd, 1901, in which it was announced that in future, in any evening school conducted as a public elementary school under the Elementary Education Acts,

1 As reported in “The Times,” Dec. 21, 1900.

the instruction given must be in accordance with those Acts, and that the attendance of any scholar over fifteen at the beginning of the school year would not be counted for grants. In the same year (1901) a temporary way out of the difficulty thus created was found in the passing of an Act which empowered County and County Borough Councils to sanction the carrying on by School Boards for one year of any evening school which had been started contrary to the law, and, pending a complete settlement of the question by the Act of that year, this arrangement was renewed in 1902.

By the Education Act of 1902, the local administration of education was unified, the County and County Borough Councils being constituted as the authorities for education of all grades, and the special difficulty with regard to the legality of evening schools giving higher education to adults has disappeared. The power of the Local Authority to provide instruction under the Elementary Education Acts is now limited, with certain exceptions, to "the provision in a public elementary school of instruction given under the regulations of the Board of Education to scholars who at the close of the school year will not be more than sixteen years of age"; whereas their powers with regard to the supply of higher education include "a power . . . to supply or aid the supply of any education except where that education is given at a public elementary school." Thus evening schools have become definitely a part of the provision of higher education and are legally entitled to aid from the rates.

But the change which was made in view of the importance of encouraging the technical or more advanced types of evening classes has had the effect of diverting administrative interest from the problem of the more elementary type of continuation school. In the work of many local

education authorities the care of elementary and of higher education respectively is assigned to different committees. The evening classes come under the supervision of the higher education committees. This is perfectly right so far as the more advanced classes are concerned. But the fortunes of the elementary continuation schools are intimately bound up with those of the elementary day schools. The work of the two forms one problem. It is desirable therefore that the same body of administrators should constantly view the two problems together as part of an organic whole. At present this is not always possible, so far as the committees are concerned, but the vigilance of the executive officers averts some of the inconvenience which might otherwise arise.

Our present system of voluntary attendance at continuation schools has much in its favour. In some characters it develops "grit." It rewards self-denying industry.

On the other hand, it fails to touch the idle or the less strenuous. As compared with the German or Swiss system of compulsory continuation schools, it leaves a large residue of the boy population without any educational discipline during the critical years of adolescence. We must not exaggerate the power of schools or undervalue the rough education of life. But it should be acknowledged that our voluntary system is wasteful of human material which might by timely care be made more serviceable to the State. It is individualistic, not collective, in spirit. It disregards the average boy unless he voluntarily offers himself as a pupil. It does not grapple with the problem as a whole, but contents itself with offering facilities to those who are willing to seize them. It affords opportunities; but does not impose a national obligation. The result is that there are vast numbers of boys and girls in England who, after leaving the day school, slip away

from educational influences altogether, and these include the great proportion of the future unskilled workers of the country. In Manchester, where the evening school system has been the subject of long-continued care, there were in the autumn of 1904 at least 14,000 children between 14 and 16 years of age who were not touched by the evening classes. In the Final Report of the School Board for London (1904) it is calculated that, in the session 1901-2, out of the population of London between 14 and 21 years of age, only 15 per cent. enrolled themselves in the Board's evening schools and, even when account is taken of the attendance at the evening classes which were being conducted at the same time under the then Technical Education Board, it is clear that only a small minority of London boys and girls were in attendance at continuation schools.

In the autumn of 1903 the Manchester Education Committee took steps to ascertain what proportion of the students in the different evening schools of that city had joined the evening classes immediately after completing their course in the elementary day school. It proved that, out of 6,714 students present in the evening schools on November 16th, nearly one-half (48 per cent.) had allowed a gap of one or more years to intervene between the close of their day school course and the beginning of their attendance at evening classes.¹ The Committee further asked the teachers in the evening schools to report whether they found that the students who entered the evening classes after such an interval had lost an appreciable amount of the knowledge which they had gained in the day school. There was a striking consensus of opinion among the teachers that the loss was great. One teacher reported that "scholars who were in the Sixth Standard of

1. There has since been a great improvement.

the day school, are not able on returning to the evening school after a year's absence, to do the work of Standard III. or IV." Another replied that he had "found, among the adult pupils who had left the day school many years before, men who, though they had been in Standards IV. or V. in the day school, had completely forgotten the methods of simple division." Another reported that "the work of a girl who allows twelve months to elapse before joining the evening school, has greatly deteriorated and it takes her a long time to regain what she has lost." Another said that "girls who had passed Standards V. or VI. before leaving the day school, are unable, after two or three years' absence, to do the work of Standards III. or IV., and are careless and inaccurate, especially in writing." The experience of the teachers in the Manchester evening schools is confirmed by that of teachers in other parts of England. And it must be remembered that only a small proportion of the children who go through the day school course ever come to the evening school, even after an interval. Nor is the mere forgetting of much that they had learnt in the day school the worst feature of the case. What matters much more is their loss of intellectual discipline and of the habit of regular learning during adolescence.

Thus the question to be decided is whether we in England gain more through stimulating and rewarding the energy of the vigorous few by our voluntary system of continuation schools than is lost through our failure to raise the general average of trained and disciplined efficiency by means of compulsory attendance for all. The same question comes up, in some form or other, in every attempt to balance the advantages of what may broadly be distinguished as the English and German forms of educational organisation. The Germans make thriftier

use of their average material than we succeed in doing. On the other hand, there are some indisputable advantages in the freedom which we enjoy from the close administrative restraints entailed by any plan of systematic compulsion.

Can we afford the waste which our lack of organisation entails? This question raises momentous issues in many other problems of national life. The student of education needs to be on his guard against attaching too much importance to the influence of schools upon individual character. But it will perhaps be admitted that most Englishmen are a little inclined to overlook the service which a well planned system of skilful teaching can confer upon a nation. In any case, it should not be forgotten that "the State was *formed* to make life possible, and *exists* to make life good."¹ But it may be retorted with some justice that the wisdom of the State and the wisdom of an administrative department in Whitehall are not necessarily identical terms. And the reader of this chapter, when he casts his eye over the multifarious activities of "further education" in England, will observe that the power of some of the educational agencies at work in it comes through intensity of personal conviction on many subjects in regard to which the individual conscience and not the State must have the last word.

(8) THE EXTENSION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHING.²

University extension, in the widest and older sense of the term, is one of the most important of the movements

1. Aristotle "Politics," Bk. 1, Chap. 2. Dr. Welldon's translation, p. 5.

2. No brief summary can do justice to the importance of this movement, which has touched the intellectual and social history of the country at almost every point, and has been the outcome of profound changes in the conditions of national life. But some reference to the subject is necessary here, as many of the classes which have been established in the course of the movement form part of the new provision for the education of adults who are unable to take any day courses of instruction for university degrees.

which have multiplied opportunities for the "further education" of adult students in England. It began with the foundation of University College, London (originally intended to be a University for London) on undenominational lines in 1826. The foundation of King's College, London, followed in 1831. In 1832 the University of Durham was founded by means of funds granted by the Dean and Chapter. In 1836 the University of London was incorporated as an examining body which for the next fourteen years admitted to its degrees none but duly qualified candidates from University and King's Colleges.

In the meantime Mr. W. R. Whetton had mooted in 1829 a plan for the conversion of the Manchester Royal Institution into a University of Manchester, but his proposal remained unrealised, as did a further one made by Mr. Harry Longueville Jones in 1836.¹ It was in Manchester, however, that the decisive step was taken towards the establishment of Universities in the great industrial and commercial centres. In 1846 a Manchester merchant, John Owens, bequeathed the residue of his personal estate (about £96,000) to be applied for the purpose of affording the youths of fourteen years and upwards instruction in the branches of education taught at the English Universities, free from the religious tests which then limited the extension of University education. In 1851, the Owens College, now the Victoria University of Manchester, began its work.

The middle of the nineteenth century was a critical period in the history of English Universities. Three movements converged upon them and compelled their extension. The first, and at that time the most conspicuous, was the movement for the removal of denominational restrictions

1. "The Owens College: its Foundation and Growth," by Joseph Thompson. Manchester: Cornish, 1886, pp. 15—23.

[. at Oxford and Cambridge. The form of subscription, imposed at Oxford on matriculation and at Cambridge before graduation, excluded, from membership in the one and from the degrees of the other, persons who were unwilling to express or imply assent to adopt all that is contained in the Articles of the Church of England. Though somewhat uncertain in its operation through the form of subscription required, the test, especially at Oxford, was intended to exclude nonconformists. Moreover the Oxford University Commission (1850-2) found that the manner in which subscription was imposed 'habituated the mind to give a careless assent to truths which it has never considered, and led to sophistry in the interpretation of solemn obligations.' At this combination of exclusiveness and unreality, just indignation had long been growing. Both the principle and the method of subscription were regarded by very many as mischievous or obsolete. And, from the point of view of the public interest and of the intellectual well-being of the whole community, it was felt that the ancient University foundations must, if they were to remain national, become comprehensive of all sections of the national life. Secondly, the growth of population and the intellectual and social requirements of modern life necessitated a great enlargement of the opportunities for University training. Thirdly, the movement in favour of admitting women to university education had begun to show its strength. The first of these demands led to the abolition of religious tests at Oxford and Cambridge by the successive Acts of 1852, 1854 and 1871. The second has resulted in the establishment of the following new Universities and University Colleges.

Owens College, Manchester 1851

[The Owens College was the first, and for four years the only, member of the Victoria University, which received a charter in 1880. It became the Victoria University of Manchester in 1903.]

The Durham College of Science, Newcastle-upon-Tyne	1871
[now the Armstrong College. Affiliated to the University of Durham 1871.]	
The Yorkshire College, Leeds	1874
[admitted to the Victoria University 1887, and received a charter as the University of Leeds 1904.]	
University College, Bristol	1876
Firth College, Sheffield	1879
[re-named University College, Sheffield 1897; received a charter as the University of Sheffield 1904.]	
Mason College, Birmingham	1880
[received a charter as the University of Birmingham 1900.]	
University College, Nottingham	1881
University College, Liverpool	1882
[admitted to the Victoria University 1884, and received a charter as the University of Liverpool 1903.]	
University College, Reading	1892
[first called the University Extension College.]	
Royal Albert Memorial College, Exeter	1893
[first called the Technical and University Extension College.]	
University of London, re-organised... ..	1900
Hartley University College, Southampton, re-organised in	1902

A corresponding development of University work has taken place in Wales.

St. David's College, Lampeter, founded	1827
The University College of Wales, Aberystwyth	1872
The University College of South Wales, Cardiff	1883
The University College of North Wales, Bangor	1884
The University of Wales, established	1893
[in which are incorporated the three University Colleges mentioned above.]	

The third movement, that for the University Education of Women, has led to the establishment of the following

colleges. The table also shows the dates at which women were admitted to degrees at the Universities of London, Durham and Wales and in the Victoria University, and to University Examinations (without the right to proceed to degrees) at Oxford and Cambridge.

Queens College, London, founded	1848
Bedford College, London, founded	1849
Girton College, established at Hitchin	1869
„ „ moved to Cambridge	1872
Newnham College, Cambridge, founded... ..	1871
[Degrees of London University open to women	1878]
Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford, founded	1879
Somerville College, Oxford, founded	1879
[Degrees of Victoria University open to women	1880]
[Women admitted to all Honour examinations for degree of B.A. at Cambridge	1881]
[Women admitted to Honour Moderations and Final Honour Schools of Mathematics, Science and Modern History at Oxford	1884]
St. Hugh's Hall, Oxford, founded	1886
Royal Holloway College, Egham, founded	1887
[All degrees and offices in the University of Wales open to women equally with men... ..	1893]
Women admitted to remaining examinations for B.A., including Pass Schools, at Oxford	1894
Degrees in the University of Durham opened to Women	1895

From the year 1845 the term University Extension came into common use. It described a number of plans for increasing the usefulness of the Universities, for enlarging the number of their students or for establishing new centres of academic instruction and influence. It was applied to the proposals made in 1845 by a very influential body of memorialists that the University of Oxford should extend

its benefits to a greater number of promising young men of narrow means. It was used by the *Manchester Guardian* in 1846 to describe the purpose of John Owens' legacy for higher education in Manchester. In 1850 it was employed by Mr. William Sewell of Oxford in a further sense. "Though it may be impossible," he wrote, "to bring the masses requiring education to the University, may it not be possible to carry the University to them? Yes, and at first by way of experiment, professorships and lectureships might be founded say at Manchester and Birmingham, the great centres of manufacturing districts and in the midst of the densest population . . . By degrees the system might be extended through the whole country and similar institutions might be planted in the principal towns in convenient districts such as Norwich, Exeter, Leeds, Canterbury, Newcastle, etc. Cambridge, of course, would take its own share of the work. By originating such a comprehensive scheme, the Universities would become, as they ought to be, the great centres and springs of education throughout the country and would command the sympathy and affection of the nation at large, without sacrificing or compromising any principle which they are bound to maintain.¹

Mr. Sewell's plan, suggested perhaps by John Owens' legacy (1846) for a University in Manchester and by the permanent engagement of itinerant lecturers by some of the Unions of Mechanics Institutions (1837 onwards), was not adopted at the time. Nor was a similar suggestion made at Cambridge in 1855 by Lord Arthur Hervey (afterwards Bishop of Bath and Wells) in his pamphlet "A Suggestion for supplying the Literary, Scientific and Mechanics' Institutions of Great Britain and Ireland with lecturers from the Universities." But the establishment

1. "Suggestions for the Extension of the University," by W. Sewell, B.D. Oxford, 1850.

of the University Local Examinations at Oxford in 1857 and at Cambridge in 1858 produced administrative machinery which was subsequently used for the purpose of arranging courses of lectures in different centres under the supervision of one or other of the Universities. The founder of the University Extension lecture system was Mr. James Stuart. As a young Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, he received in 1867 an invitation from an association of ladies in the North of England, of which Mrs. Josephine Butler was President, and Miss A. J. Clough the Secretary, to deliver some lectures to them. 'Vexed with the insufficiency of the single lecture system which had prevailed in connection with Mechanics' Institutes and Literary Societies,' he planned a course of lectures which was given at Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester and Sheffield. In these courses Mr. Stuart used a printed syllabus and invited his hearers to send him weekly written exercises. The first feature, suggested by the practice of Professor Ferrier of Edinburgh, was devised as a lesson in note taking. The second was a means of escaping from the ordeal, dreaded by the lecturer and his hearers, of oral questioning. Mr. Stuart suggested that the organisation of similar courses should be taken in hand by the University. Successful lectures to the railway men at Crewe and to the co-operators at Rochdale, led him to hope that the plan of University Extension Lectures might be adopted in populous centres for the benefit of working-class audiences. In 1871 Mr. Stuart appealed to the University of Cambridge to adopt the scheme and to organise lecture-centres as well as examination-centres. In 1872 the University appointed a syndicate to investigate the subject. In the following year the syndicate reported in favour of trying Mr. Stuart's plan. The University of Cambridge thus led the way, and was followed by the

London University Extension Society in 1876 and by the University of Oxford in 1878. Since that time the system has been adopted by the other English Universities as a part of their work. The distinctive method of University Extension teaching is the lecture forming part of a connected course and followed by a class for conversational teaching. A printed syllabus is issued in connexion with each course for the guidance of the students. At the end of the course there is usually an examination, entrance to which is optional and according to the results of which certificates are granted by the University authorities. A travelling library of books is generally sent out in connexion with each course. For the last 19 years Summer meetings of University Extension and other students have been annually held at Oxford or Cambridge (once each in London and Exeter). The first Summer meeting was held in Oxford in 1888. A system of affiliation, originated at Cambridge, has done much in a few places to secure continuity of work. The success of the University Extension courses has on the whole been well-sustained. Many men of high intellectual distinction have been members of the teaching staff. The influence of the chief lecturers has been deservedly great. The audiences are representative of all sections of the community. Among the students, women are in a majority. In a considerable number of places, co-operative societies and other organisations of working men have supported the courses.

The defects of the system lie upon the surface. They consist in the frequent discontinuity between the subject of one course of lectures and the next; in the often precarious dependence of the work upon the fluctuating resources of the local committees; and in the lack of systematic classwork in the less effectively organised centres. These defects are serious but the University Extension

sion courses, through the devotion and ability of the chief lecturers and the strenuous exertions of many of the honorary local organisers, have been a potent influence for good in nearly every part of England. Their function has been in the main stimulative, but they have elicited much hidden talent and have given encouragement and guidance to very large numbers of isolated students. They have been especially effective in diffusing instruction in historical and literary subjects and have been an important factor in checking the tendency towards a narrow and too utilitarian view of adult education. In many provincial towns, especially during the earlier years of the work, they brought together for the first time for an educational purpose sections of the community which had been previously unaccustomed or unwilling to cooperate. Thus at a critical time the University Extension courses and the work involved in their local organisation were of service in promoting greater unity of social effort, especially among different sections of the middle classes. In some cases, notably in Sheffield, Nottingham, Reading and Exeter the University Extension courses, combined with the movement for science teaching and technical instruction, have led directly to the establishment of permanent institutions for higher education. In a variety of ways, the local lectures and the Summer Meetings have formed new links between the Universities and large sections of the non-academic part of the nation. Apart from their directly educational influence, the University extension lectures and classes have been one, and not the least important, of the causes which have produced in England a changed attitude of mind towards University work and a new sense of its value as an element in national life.

The University Settlements in the poorer districts of the great towns form another and equally important,

though in some respects a distinct, part of the movement for University Extension. It is in the labours of F. D. Maurice and his Christian Socialist friends in London from 1848 onwards that the starting point of this wider ideal of the possibilities and responsibilities of University influence may be found. But the systematic organisation of Settlement work in its modern form is due to the devotion of Canon and Mrs. Barnett who in 1884 conceived the idea of the settlement in Whitechapel which carries on the influence of Arnold Toynbee and bears his name. From this beginning and through the work of Oxford House in Bethnal Green and other institutions, the organisation of Settlements for social and educational work in poor districts of great cities, and for the close and practical study of the economic and social problems which there arise, has spread widely in Great Britain and America, and has greatly helped in giving reality and method, as well as sympathetic insight and practical idealism, to sociological inquiry.

(9) FREE PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND THE NATIONAL HOME READING UNION.

In the further education of the great majority of adult students, especially those of narrow means, an indispensable service has been rendered by the Free Public Libraries. The first instance in England of a library supported by a Town Council out of rates was that of the library at the Warrington Museum, which was founded in 1848. In its establishment Edward Edwards was assisted by William Ewart, M.P. for Dumfries who, in 1849, secured the appointment by the House of Commons of a Select Committee to report upon the best means of extending the establishment of libraries freely open to the

public, especially in large towns in Great Britain and Ireland. This Committee was impressed by the rich provision of libraries in Germany as compared with the very inadequate provision in Great Britain. The Public Libraries Act introduced by Mr. Ewart passed into law in 1850 and gave power to certain districts to establish free libraries and to tax the inhabitants for the purpose. In 1852 Manchester led the way in taking advantage of Ewart's Act. Liverpool and Birmingham opened libraries in 1860, but for many years the spread of public libraries was slow. In 1870 only about 50 places in the United Kingdom had adopted the Public Libraries Acts. But the trend of opinion in favour of library extension was strengthened by the social and intellectual change gradually brought about by the operation of the Elementary Education Acts.

In England, as compared with many parts of the United States, comparatively little has yet been done to bring the work of the free public libraries into organic connexion with the elementary and secondary schools and with the continuation classes. But during the last few years striking efforts have been made in many places to establish this necessary and fruitful connexion. Mr. J. J. Ogle has pointed out¹ that the first effort to make the free public library more useful to children appears to have been made in 1865 at Birkenhead, where Mr. Richard Hinton was librarian. The first free public library authority to establish direct relationship with the public elementary schools was that of Leeds where branch libraries were established in the schools from 1884 onwards. The Plymouth Library Committee followed in 1888 and Norwich in 1889. Since

1. Article on the "Connection between the Public Library and the Public Elementary School" in *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*. Vol ii. Wyman and Sons, 1898.

that time the movement has spread widely, and important service has been rendered to it by Mr. John Ballinger, Librarian of the Borough of Cardiff, and by Mr. Ogle, as Librarian at Bootle. The methods which have been adopted are (1) the temporary deposit in school buildings of special libraries, the contents of which are changed from time to time; (2) the "school deliveries" of books to individual scholars in accordance with the latter's requisition; (3) special facilities for the teachers for borrowing books needed by them in the preparation of their work, and (4) the arrangement of special lessons for small classes of children in the library itself, the object being to interest the children in the history of books and of printing, and to acquaint them with the chief books in carefully selected departments of literature. Encouragement has also been given to the individual reading of the scholars by the provision of small reference libraries in some of the classrooms. In this way the pupils are trained in the use of works of reference and are helped to form the habit of self direction in their studies. Elementary education in England has consisted too largely in oral instruction given by the teacher to rows of listening pupils. This has resulted partly from the false economy of large classes, and partly through the persistence of the theory that the teacher is mainly a conduit-pipe through which information pours out upon the scholars. But encouragement has wisely now been given to greater initiative on the part of the pupils, both in practical work and in literary studies.

The closer connexion between the free public libraries and the schools has been furthered by the establishment of the National Home Reading Union¹ which was founded

1. Office, Surrey House, Victoria Embankment, London, W.C.

in 1887 at the suggestion of Dr. Paton of Nottingham. The objects it had in view were :

(i) To stimulate, encourage and direct home reading in such a way as to make home reading educational in the truest sense of the word.

(ii) To give definiteness, continuity, and system to home reading, and to adapt it to the divers needs and tastes of readers.

(iii) To give all practical help, in the most economical and efficient way, to those who engage in such reading.

(iv) By means of local unions, or associations of readers, and the influences of a large organization, as well as by personal sympathy, to sustain the interest and confirm the purpose of all who undertake a regular course of home reading, and to unite them in honourable and helpful fellowship with each other.

The Union has given guidance of considerable value to many different categories of students. Its monthly magazines (Special Courses Magazine, General Course Magazine) contain a series of articles by scholars of distinction. These writers have developed the happy knack of dealing with their difficult subjects in a way helpful to isolated readers, especially to those who have had little systematic preliminary training. Lists of books are issued by the Union, some of which are required to be read in connection with the articles in the magazines. Others are recommended as supplementary or illustrative. A third section of the list names those books of reference which should be available in public libraries for the use of students requiring fuller information on special points. Reading circles are formed consisting of any number of persons who undertake to read the same course at home and to meet at convenient intervals in order to talk over their reading, and to discuss essays prepared in connection with it. Courses of reading are

arranged in several grades, viz: The Young People's Section, the General Section, and the Special Courses. Tutorial help and correspondence teaching are offered to individual readers. Summer assemblies for lectures on the Chautauqua plan are held annually at some attractive resort. The local organisers of the Union invite the co-operation of the teachers in the different grades of schools and of the librarian of the free public library. In the latter a room is sometimes provided for the meetings of reading circles. The Board of Education has given strong support to the work of the National Home Reading Union, and has issued circular letters to all Educational Committees in England and Wales recommending the adoption of the methods of the Union in connection with schools and public libraries. About a hundred public libraries are joined in honorary membership with the Union. Under the Education Committee of the London County Council about two hundred reading circles are at work. The Manchester Education Committee have introduced National Home Reading circles into their schools, and circles are also carried on under the County Councils of Gloucestershire, Norfolk and Middlesex, and the Education Authorities of Leicester, Halifax, Nottingham and other towns.

III.

(1) BOY'S AND GIRLS' BRIGADES.

These associations are organised upon a voluntary basis. They are of a patriotic or philanthropic character. Their chief purpose is to promote steadiness of character and the habit of loyal co-operation among boys or girls during the years of adolescence. One (the National Service League, with which is incorporated the Lads' Drill Association) is distinctively patriotic in its purpose. The others are primarily religious, but two of them (the Boys' Brigade and the Church Lads' Brigade) make use of military organisa-

and drill as a means of securing the interest of the boys and developing their sense of discipline. The Boys' and Girls' Life Brigades lay emphasis on the saving of life. The drill of which they make use is not associated with the use of arms, but directed towards training the members in the means of saving life from fire, drowning or other accident. The Boys' League of Honour and the Guild of Courtesy, both of which, like the Boys' and Girls' Life Brigades, owe their origin to Dr. Paton of Nottingham, belong to a different category. They aim at a definite kind of moral training and at placing before children and young people an ideal of conduct. Membership of these associations can be combined with service in one or other of the Brigades mentioned above.

All the associations here grouped together under the heading Boys' Brigades make use of drill, whether military or other, as a means of getting hold of boys during the critical period between boyhood and manhood and of training them in citizenship. In one case only is there a Brigade for girls as well as for boys.

(1) The oldest is the *Boys' Brigade*, founded in 1883. Its headquarters are in Glasgow (162, Buchanan Street) but it has branches all over the United Kingdom and the work has spread to the United States, Denmark, and many of the Colonies, as well as to India, Ceylon, China and Japan. The aim is definitely religious—"The object of the Brigade shall be the advancement of Christ's Kingdom among boys, and the formation of habits of obedience, reverence, discipline, self-respect and all that tends towards a true Christian manliness," but, though every company must be officially connected with a church, mission or other Christian organisation, the work is not limited to the members of any particular denomination. "Military organisation and drill are used as a means of

securing the interest of the boys, banding them together in the work of the Brigade and promoting among them such habits as the Brigade is designed to form,¹ but military drill is not the only means employed to attain the objects of the association. In addition to the definitely religious agencies—Bible Classes, Sunday Services, Church Parades, etc.,—athletic clubs of various kinds (football, cricket, swimming, gymnastics) have been formed in connexion with most of the companies; ambulance classes are held; there are bands, reading rooms, and boys' libraries; and Summer Camps are organised and are becoming every year more popular. In 1905-6, the total number of boys (ages 12 to 17) enrolled in the United Kingdom was 53,486. The number of companies was 1,237 and the total enrolment, including officers and staff-sergeants, amounted to 60,612.

(2) The *Church Lads' Brigade*, which has its headquarters in London (13, Craven Street, Charing Cross), was founded in 1891, with aims very similar to those of the Boys' Brigade. Its first object, as set forth in its constitution, is expressed in almost the same words: "The advancement of Christ's Kingdom among lads of all classes, the promotion of reverence, discipline, self-respect and all that tends towards true Christian manliness," and the means to be used towards this end are (*a*) military organisation and drill, and (*b*) religious, educational and recreative agencies. The desire is to provide for lads of the class whose regular school education necessarily ends when they are from 12 to 14 years of age, an organisation which, in some measure, may be to them in their after lives what the Public School is to boys more fortunately situated. Discipline, comradeship, and healthy physical

1. Constitution of the Boys' Brigade, "The Boys' Brigade Manual," 1906.

exercises are recognised to be necessities for all growing boys, and these the Church Lads' Brigade (which is open to boys from 13 to 19 years of age) seeks to secure for those whose circumstances oblige them to become wage-earners before they have grown to be men. As in the case of the Boys' Brigade, clubs of various kinds are organised, bands are started and Summer Camps are popular. The Church Lads' Brigade, as its name implies, is a definitely Church of England organisation, and is worked on diocesan lines, the aim being to train its members "to be loyal Churchmen, regular churchgoers and communicants." In 1907 there were 1,145 companies in the United Kingdom and 112 in the Colonies.

(3) The *Lads' Drill Association* was founded in 1899, but incorporated in 1906 with the National Service League (see below). It differed from the Boys' Brigade and the Church Lads' Brigade in that it advocated physical and military training, not as a means to a religious, but to a patriotic, end. The object of the Association was simply "Systematic Physical and Military Training of all British Lads." In his introduction to the annual report for 1904, the Chairman, Lord Meath, speaking of the aims of the Association, said that, while not advocating conscription, it endeavoured "to point out the absolute necessity and to emphasise the importance, if the Empire is to be maintained, of training to arms, during the educative portion of their lives, the entire male youth of the British race, confident that in time of real danger the great mass would voluntarily offer their services to the State." Such training, he points out, while not hindering lads from learning a trade, "would be of inestimable advantage in reforming the loafing elements to be found amongst all classes, and would implant in the youthful mind a respect for the manly virtues which tend towards the manufacture of good and

useful citizens." The first object of the Association was to improve the physical training given in Elementary Schools by obtaining for those responsible for its organisation the help and guidance of an authorised curriculum, and the Model Course of Physical Training, issued by the Board of Education in 1902, and revised in 1904, was largely the result of its efforts. The second aim was the military training of elder lads, both those of the working classes who have left or are about to leave school, and those who are still at secondary schools.

The *National Service League* (72 Victoria Street, London, S.W.), with which the Lads' Drill Association was incorporated in 1906, has the following objects :

(1) To ensure peace and security for the British Empire by organising our Land Forces in such a manner that we may not only be able to defend successfully any portion of the Empire against attack, but also that the strength of our defensive arrangements may render any attack improbable.

(2) To improve the moral and physical condition of the nation and thereby to increase its industrial efficiency.

With a view to attaining these two objects, the League advocates that, subject to certain exemptions to be defined by law, including those necessary to provide for the requirements of the Navy and the Mercantile Marine :

Every man of sound physique, without distinction of class, shall be legally liable during certain years of his life to be called upon for service in the United Kingdom in case of emergency.

In order to fit him for this duty he shall be legally obliged to undergo three or four months' military training when he arrives at the military age.

But the League holds that this limited amount of train-

ing can only be effective if as much military instruction as possible has been given to all boys previous to their reaching the military age. Such instructional training will, it maintains, have a beneficial effect on the moral and physical condition of the population at large.

For this purpose the League recommends:

The development of a spirit of patriotism and duty towards the country in all boys at school. This is already done in some of our Colonies, in the United States, and in several Continental countries.

Universal physical training of a military character, and instruction in the use of the rifle, as part of the curriculum of all schools; and—in the case of boys who leave school before eighteen—the continuation of this training, up to that age, in cadet corps, boys' brigades, and similar institutions, under State supervision.

The encouragement of rifle clubs, and the endeavour to make rifle shooting a national sport.

(4) The *Boys' Life Brigade*, (Office: 56 Old Bailey, London, E.C.) makes use of drill as a means of religious and moral training, but it is distinguished from all the associations hitherto mentioned by the fact that it has adopted as its main principle the idea of *Life Saving*, and that it avoids the use of military drill. "The objects of the Brigade," says its constitution, "are to lead our boys to the service of Christ; to train them for an active, disciplined, and useful manhood; and to promote habits of self-respect, obedience, courtesy and helpfulness to others, and all that makes for a manly Christian character. These objects shall be sought chiefly by means of drill—not associated with the use of arms, but with instruction and exercises in the saving of life from fire, from drowning, and from accident," and these objects are further explained in the following words. "It is intended

that the physical training given in the different kinds of drill should thus prepare for helpful service to others, whilst imparting healthful vigour to the body and giving the moral discipline which comes from the obedience and self-regard and mutual trust necessary in effective drill. The whole principle and tone of the Brigade is Life-saving." The Brigade is affiliated with the Sunday School Union, the Union Council being also the Brigade Council, and it is recommended that the Boys' Life Brigade should be everywhere associated with a Christian Church or some other religious organisation, so as to ensure, amongst other things, that definite religious and moral instruction shall be given to the boys. The main object is to supplement and develop the work of the Sunday School, and it is a fundamental principle of the Brigade that, after joining the Company, a boy must attend either Sunday School or Company Bible Class. Boys from 12 to 17 years of age are eligible for enrolment as members of the Brigade, but boys under 12 may be admitted as cadets to a special section of a company, and membership after 17 is allowed in special circumstances. The subjects of company instruction are Marching (Squad Drill), Gymnastics and Stretcher Drill, Life Saving--to save from water, Life Saving--to save from fire, Hygiene and First Aid, the first half hour being always devoted to drill or to gymnastics and the rest of the meeting to such of the other subjects of instruction as the company may elect to take up. In the last annual report it is stated that comparatively few companies take only one subject. Most take two—Squad Drill and First Aid, and Fire Drill and Swimming and Life Saving from water are taken up in an increasing number of cases. A Summer Camp is now frequently an integral part of company work.

(5) The *Girls' Life Brigade*, (Office 56 Old Bailey,

London, E.C.) has aims almost identical with those of the Boys' Life Brigade. "The aims of the Brigade are to awaken in our girls a sense of their responsibility in life, to help them to make the very best use of their powers of body and mind, and so to train them to be capable and useful women. The discipline of the Brigade will encourage habits of punctuality and promptitude, self-respect, courtesy and helpfulness to others; physical drill of various kinds will develop the body; and lessons in first-aid, sick-nursing, and life-saving will impart knowledge requisite in times of emergency. The Bible-class and the personal influence of the officers in each Company will, it is believed, induce the girls to concentrate all their powers to the service of God." The same subjects of company instruction are used as means to these ends, with the important addition of sick-nursing, and there is the same close connexion with the Sunday School. Girls over 10 years of age are eligible for enrolment as members.

In April, 1906, the total enrolment in the Boys' Life Brigade, including officers and cadets, was 8,485 (7,648 members on roll, 726 cadets on roll, and 781 officers). In the Girls' Life Brigade, the total enrolment was, at the same date, 1,363 (1,215 members on roll, and 148 officers).

(6) *The Boys' League of Honour* (Hon. Sec., Mrs. H. E. Norton, "Recorder" offices, Ilford, Essex) is of quite recent foundation. It seeks to strengthen a boys' instinctive admiration for courage, truth, self-command, fair-play and chivalry.

(2) THE RECREATIVE EVENING SCHOOLS' ASSOCIATION.

This Association (office: 37 Norfolk Street, Strand, London) owes its existence to Dr. Eaton, of Nottingham, a pioneer in the movements for the improvement of

English Continuation Schools, who for more than twenty years has impressed their social significance and value upon public attention.

The objects of the Association are :

(1) To encourage and attract those boys and girls who have left the Public Elementary Day Schools to continue their education at Evening Schools, opened under Government Inspection, and for this purpose "to encourage *Recreative* and *Practical* Instruction.

(2) To utilise as far as possible Elementary Schools and other buildings for the establishment of Evening Homes for working women and girls, and Clubs and Institutes for working men and boys.

(3) To stimulate public opinion and Voluntary and State effort towards the promotion of the industrial and social well-being of the people by all such means as come within the scope of the Association.

The Association seeks to promote Continuation Schools of a Practical and Recreative kind throughout the whole country for those who have left the Elementary Schools, so as to prevent the loss of the benefits of early training, to shield them from the perils of the streets at night, and by suitable classes to fit them for the work of life.

The subjects include Elementary Science, Object Lessons, Lantern Teaching of History and Geography, Vocal Music, Drawing, Manual Instruction, Hygiene and Gymnastic Exercises, with Cookery, Laundry, and Dress-making for Girls.

Other branches of its work are :

(1) Homes for Working Girls, open every evening for rest, recreation, and instruction in useful and pleasant subjects.

(2) Social Institutes for Working Lads and Men, providing social, recreative, and educational opportunities

to lads over 16, and meeting places for Clubs and Provident and Benefit Societies.

The work of the Recreative Evening Schools' Association dates back to the time of the deliberations of the Royal Commission appointed in 1886 to inquire into the working of the Elementary Education Acts in England and Wales. Many of the witnesses who gave evidence before the Commission testified to a serious falling off in the success of the evening schools. They were reported to be a failure in Birmingham, and to be unsuccessful in Salford and Bradford. In London there were 10,000 names on the evening school registers, with an average attendance of 7,000.

The chief causes assigned for the decrease and comparative failure of the schools were the insufficient encouragement given by the Education Department and the want of freedom both as to classification and subjects of instruction. "We tried," said Mr. Burges, "very hard inside the Birmingham Board, when I was on it, to get the Education Department to give grants to night schools without obliging us to go into elementary subjects; and when they refused it, our night schools were knocked in the head."

The weight of evidence was in favour of a special curriculum for evening schools. The instruction, it was urged, should have a more direct bearing upon the practical duties of life. The pupils should be allowed to take drawing, modelling, shorthand, bookkeeping, etc. The importance of physical exercises from the point of view both of health and morals was emphasised. Opinions were divided as to the advisability of making evening schools compulsory. Some witnesses were very strongly for it, others were equally strong against it.

Several drew attention to the good moral effects of evening schools. Dr. Paton gave evidence on behalf of the

Recreative Evening Schools' Association, and laid great stress on this point. He attributed the success which had been achieved to the discipline and bright tone of a good night school, and to the carrying on of the training begun in the day school to a period when it becomes effective in the character of the scholar. He was also of opinion that the night school exercised "a most important social civilising influence," but that much of this influence had been lost since 1870.

The conclusion of the majority of the Commissioners was thus expressed in the report issued in 1888:—"Upon the whole we are decidedly of opinion that the evening school system should be thoroughly revised; that special schedules of standards and subjects should be allowed, suited to the needs of the locality; that local managers should be encouraged to submit such schedules to the Department for approval; that any such provision as that embodied in the present Code, which requires all scholars to pass in the three elementary subjects, as a condition for taking up additional subjects, should cease to be enforced, and that no superior limit of age should be imposed on the scholars. While we believe that the success of evening schools will largely depend upon great freedom being given to the managers and teachers of such schools, the Department should take ample security for their educational efficiency. If this were done, a larger proportion of the grant might be fixed, and less made to depend on the results of individual examination. In our opinion, the evening schools of the future should be regarded and organised chiefly as schools for maintaining and continuing the education already received in the day school, but, for some years to come, it will be necessary in many places, to repeat in the evening school, in greater

or less proportion, the course of instruction previously given in the day school." ¹

A minority report was signed by the Hon. E. Lyulph Stanley (now Lord Stanley of Alderley), Dr. R. W. Dale, Mr. T. E. Heller, Mr. Henry Richard and Mr. George Shipton. While heartily agreeing in the recommendations of the majority as to evening schools, they recommended that in the re-organisation of the evening school system the following points should be kept in view:

1. The desire and need of young people for healthy physical exercises should be kept in view, both from the point of view of training the body and of moral discipline. Calisthenics and musical drill would be attractive to scholars.

2. The methods and subjects should be such as to awaken the interest of the pupils and give them pleasure in the pursuit of knowledge. Teaching should be largely oral, and given in connection with real objects, and should in many cases have direct bearing on the scholars' own lives and employments.

3. The education should be in an elementary sense technical. One way to secure the interest of the scholars is to make clear the benefit they derive from learning. In addition to drawing, art handwork would be attractive both to boys and girls. "By these means they could be trained to dexterity of hand, accuracy of sight and touch, and to the perception and enjoyment of neat workmanship and beautiful form."

4. The course of reading should be such as to fill the mind and imagination with noble examples of duty, and music should be taught to elevate the taste and prepare the scholars to enjoy in their home life or elsewhere the pure pleasure which song can impart. It should be

1. "Final Report," pp. 162-4. For the subsequent adoption of those suggestions by the Government, see 62-64 above.

remembered that some scholars come to the evening school desiring, not so much systematic continuation of their education, as to supplement some special deficiency of which they are conscious.

"The evening school should have regard to the whole nature and circumstances of those who attend them."¹

These farseeing words have borne a good deal of fruit. And in keeping this humane ideal of continuation school work before the public, the Recreative Evening Schools' Association has done a useful work.

(3) THE CO-OPERATIVE HOLIDAYS ASSOCIATION.²

The aim of the Co-operative Holidays Association is similar to that of the National Home Reading Union; it provides facilities to busy men and women for continuing their education throughout life. But it offers these facilities in a rather different way. As the name would indicate the recreational and social aims of the Association are more important than the provision of actual instruction, and it would not be too much to say that the true educational value of the movement lies in the combination of all three aims.

The history of the Association can be briefly told. Mr. T. Arthur Leonard, the present General Secretary, was the founder of it. The first step was taken in 1887 with the formation of a rambling club of the Men's Guild attached to the Congregational Church at Colne, of which church Mr. Leonard was at that time the Pastor. During the next nine years the movement expanded steadily. Saturday afternoon walks developed into annual excursions into the Lake District or North Wales. These ex-

1. "Final Report," pp. 323-4.

2. This section of the chapter is the work of Messrs. Peter Sandiford and Arthur L. Dakyns.

peditions occupied three or four days and were at first only undertaken once in the year. With the growth of their popularity they became more frequent. Women as well as men, and finally people of all denominations and creeds, were allowed to join. In 1896 a great advance was made. As early as 1887 the club had been given a constitution and a name; in 1896 an affiliation with the National Home Reading Union took place which led to a great extension of the Co-operative Holiday idea and the foundation of a national movement. Dr. Paton of Nottingham was one of the pioneers of the society at this time. In 1899 a limited liability company was formed among the members to purchase a guest-house—Ardenconnel at Row on the shores of the Gareloch. Hitherto the financial responsibility of the society involved in the renting and upkeep of guest-houses had been borne by a voluntary association of members; at the present time a small company with a capital of £5,000 (most of which carries a deferred liability) affords security for the renting of guest-houses and any other financial schemes which the society may have in view. The dividend is limited to 5 per cent.

The progress of the Association in recent years has been very rapid. In 1906, 9,282 guests were distributed as follows among the eleven centres:

Whitby	1618
Row	1957
Hayfield	1296
Newlands Vale	1057
Addiscombe	503
Bangor	437
Portballintrae	600
Boscastle	382
Dublin	329
St. Luc (Switzerland)	651
The Volcanic Eifel (Germany)	452
Total	9282

This shows an increase of 882 guests, or nearly 10 per cent., over the total of the previous year. The Centres or Guest-houses for the present year (1907) are thirteen in number and many new places of interest have been chosen. The Balance Sheet for 1906 shows a turnover of nearly £18,000.

The organization of the Centres is closely connected with one of the principal aims of the Association—simplicity. The chief members of the staff at each of the eleven centres are the Secretary and the lecturers, who together organize and superintend the daily excursions, two Hostesses whose business it is to look after the female members of the party and a Manageress who superintends all the house-work and catering. With the exception of the last mentioned these helpers give their services practically free. The ordinary house duties are undertaken by specially chosen “domestic helpers,” who, while receiving a fair wage for their services, are allowed to spend their spare-time with the other guests and share in the pleasures of the holiday life.¹ The social side of the movement is brought out strongly in these features of the arrangements. The amount of routine work is reduced to a minimum by the encouragement of self-help and social-service; the work itself is lightened by that absolute disregard of class-distinctions which is one of the vital principles of all the undertakings which the Association organizes.

Simplicity also gives the key to the recreational ideal of the movement. The object from the beginning has been to offer counter-attractions, in the way of a pure-minded and healthy open air life among companions, to the conventional holiday-life spent in crowded seaside resorts. The vantage ground of the new movement has always been the

1. At one of the centres—Newlands—some domestic-helpers are dispensed with, and the guests share many of the duties among themselves; with the consequence that the charge at this centre is lower than at any other.

relatively low price at which health-giving pleasures can be purchased. Understanding recreation to mean the recuperation of the mental and physical faculties, the Association attaches great importance to physical exercise. In its last report the Committee urges upon members the desirability of putting themselves in training some weeks before the holiday, in order not to be overtired by the long walks.* A particularly interesting experiment* is being tried this summer at Halesowen. A physical training school has been engaged as the guest-house and the guests will go through a course of physical exercises, swimming lessons,† and games all under skilled instruction.* The Time-Table for the day is as follows:

7-0 Bathing Swimming lesson for men.

8-30 Breakfast.

10-0 Gymnastic and other physical exercises.

12-0 Bathing Swimming lesson for ladies.

1-0 Lunch.

2-30 Outdoor games or excursions.

4-0 Afternoon tea.

7-0 Dinner.

• 9-0 --10-30 Music or games.

It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that physical culture pursued for its own sake is the main feature of the holiday life at the various centres. Active open-air life amid beautiful surroundings would be a better description of the recreational side of the movement. Exercise is looked upon, not only as good in itself, but as a real means of education.

Nor does the Association neglect the more ordinary methods of instruction. Certain members accompany each holiday party in the character of lecturers, and lectures on any subjects likely to prove of special interest,

such as botany, archæology, geology, etc., are given daily. Fortnightly Summer Nature-study courses have also been arranged from time to time at various centres, and have been successful in awakening interest in natural philosophy. Other courses of lectures are given at different times in the year in connexion with some of the fifteen Rambling Clubs which have been organised by the Association in different towns. According to the last Report the number of these clubs is steadily increasing.

One of the chief aims of this branch of the Association's activities is the inculcation of feelings of reverence for natural beauty; and this object is regarded as such an important one that comradeship, simplicity and *Reverence* are said to be the three watchwords of the movement.

The central offices of the Association are at Heathfield, Birch Vale, near Stockport.

(4) THE WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The Workers' Educational Association was established in 1903, with the object of promoting the higher education of working men and women. It has had remarkable success in stimulating public interest in the question: It is definitely unsectarian and non-political, and endeavours to carry out its aims by the following principal methods:

(a) By arousing the interest of the workers in higher education, and by directing their attention to the facilities already existing.

(b) By inquiring into the needs and feelings of the workers in regard to education, and by representing them to the Board of Education, Universities, Local Education Authorities, and Educational Institutions.

(c) By providing, either in conjunction with the aforementioned bodies or otherwise, facilities for studies

of interest to the workers which may have been hitherto overlooked.

(d) By publishing, or arranging for the publication of, such reports, pamphlets, books, and magazines as it deems necessary.

The Association consists of a central authority, with its office at 24 Buckingham Street, Strand, London, district authorities and local branches. The branches are federations of local organisations with individual members. They are autonomous bodies, but their constitutions must be approved by the district authorities upon which they are represented. The constitutions of the district authorities must, in their turn, be approved by the central authority. The central and district authorities keep the branches in touch with one another, and with educational movements give guidance as to educational policy. They also undertake to deal with local difficulties, when such arise, and to afford help when desired. There are now (1907) about 40 towns in Great Britain where scholars and workmen, together with their organisations, are thus united in systematic educational work. The work undertaken in the various branches differs according to their varying local needs, but the endeavour of each is to focus working-class opinion upon educational matters and to co-ordinate existing, as well as devise fresh, means by which workpeople may increase their education. The branches work in harmony with the local education authorities which are as a rule officially represented on the local councils and have given material assistance to the work. At Birmingham, the University has co-operated in the movement by the arrangement during the winter of 1906-7 of a special evening course of Social Study for workpeople. The subjects taken were: (1) The Social Ideal, (2) Social Economics, (3) Industrial Organisation,

(4) Local Administration and (5) Public Health and Housing. Twenty-five lectures were given with an average attendance at each course of 352 students, almost all of whom were trade unionists and members of Adult Schools. In London, history lectures were given in Westminster Abbey in 1907 on "The Story of the Abbey in relation to the History of the English People." The course was largely attended and 300 students stayed behind each week to put questions to the lecturer. Four classes, containing 180 men, have met regularly during the summer to continue the studies begun at the lectures. An account of the work of the Rochdale branch, which is of especial interest, will be found in the Note on the Evening Schools of Rochdale at the end of Chapter IV.

(5) ENCOURAGEMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN CONNECTION WITH CONTINUATION CLASSES.

The Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland) reported in 1903 in favour of a more general introduction into continuation schools of physical exercises for lads over school age. The Commissioners were of opinion that it would be reasonable to require all groups of continuation classes recognised by the Education Department to afford adequate opportunities for physical training for those who might desire to avail themselves of such opportunities. They also advised that all pupils admitted to the elementary or preparatory grade of continuation classes should be required to take part in such physical training, or to produce a certificate of sufficient previous training of the same kind. The Commissioners did not adopt the view suggested to them by some witnesses that, as in the case of elementary day schools, the provision of an adequate amount of physical training should be a universal condition

of grant to continuation classes. They pointed out that such a universal rule would be resented by many who attend advanced continuation classes for technical instruction, and that its operation would seriously interfere with the usefulness of this important branch of further education. But they urged that young loafers should be brought under some form of physical discipline, and suggested the experiment of establishing "Short Detention" schools in which there could be brisk and lively work in the workshop, the drill yard and the gymnasium.

A similar suggestion was made by the Inter-departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration which reported in 1904. "Lads should be made to attend evening continuation classes in which drill and physical exercises should take a prominent place, and, with a view to the encouragement of clubs and cadet-corps, exemption from the obligation might be granted to all enrolled and efficient members of such organizations."¹ But the need for suitable accommodation in which the lads can change their clothes after severe physical exercises, the pressure of other classes upon the time which the pupils now voluntarily give to attendance at the continuation school, and the fatigued state in which many of the boys are left by a hard day's work present practical difficulties which have hitherto prevented local authorities from requiring attendance at a physical training class as part of a recognised course of evening classes.

Within the last few years the influence of the Swedish and Danish methods of physical training has grown in England and a considerable body of public opinion now favours systematic physical training on Swedish lines for all school children above the age of nine years and for

1. "Report," vol. i. p. 91. London: Wyman and Sons, 1902. (Cd. 2175.)

young people beyond the limits of the elementary day school age. Such physical training could without difficulty be given in the towns—where it is most wanted. But a great increase in the number of teachers able to give this physical training is required. To prepare a large body of such teachers the first step must be (as Colonel Fox and Mr. C. J. Phillips point out in their report on the organisation of physical training in Sweden) the creation of a body of highly qualified expert instructors.¹ What, however, is still more needed is a wave of national feeling and a quickening of the sense of personal responsibility towards the State. This would quickly show itself among young men, as it has done in Denmark, in a desire to attain physical efficiency in order to help in furthering national development and to render competent service in national defence.

The encouragement of organized games has been a marked feature of English educational policy during recent years,² and the London County Council have rendered valuable service in affording facilities for the purpose in the parks and open spaces under their control.³

The National League for Physical Education and Improvement⁴ incorporated in 1905 and now combined with the 20th Century League, appointed a Playgrounds Committee with the purpose of pressing upon the attention of the local education authorities the importance of opening school playgrounds for the organized play of working boys and girls after school hours. The Committee's appeal has met with a favourable response.

1. "Board of Education Pamphlet," No. 11. London, 1907.

2. The Education (Administrative Provisions) Act 1907, Section 13 (1) empowers local education authorities "to provide, for children attending a public elementary school, . . . play-centres or other means of recreation during their holidays or at other times, in the school house or in some other suitable place in the vicinity."

3. See "London County Council Regulations relating to the playing of games, together with particulars of the facilities accorded for such games and general recreation in parks and open spaces under the control of the Council." London: B. S. King and Sons, 2nd edition, 1906.

4. Office, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.

CHAPTER II.

The Present Position of State-aided Evening Schools and Classes in England and Wales.

IN England and Wales evening schools and classes may be placed under Government inspection and, on the fulfilment of certain conditions, receive Government aid. The local education authorities in Counties and County Boroughs may establish evening schools in any part of their area and may maintain them at the expense of the rates. They may also, if they think fit, recognise and aid evening schools which are carried on under independent management. By the Education Act 1902, evening schools of all kinds, whether elementary or advanced, are placed in the category of higher education. A school or class held after 4 p.m. (or, on Saturdays, 1 p.m.) is regarded as an evening school.

REGULATIONS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

Great freedom is allowed under the Government regulations as regards the choice of the subjects of instruction. The courses in the evening schools thus brought under Government inspection are classified under seven heads. The following list shows the plan of classification and the courses which were recognised in each division in the year 1904-5, the last for which statistics are available.

PREPARATORY DIVISION.

Under this division may be recognised any instruction, not provided for below, of a kind which may be included in a good elementary education. The separation of this Preparatory Division from Division I. was first made in 1906. It points towards some clearer distinction being made hereafter between the Continuation School proper and the more advanced evening class.

The following list of recognised courses includes some which will not in future be classed in the Preparatory Division :—

Reading, Composition, Writing and Arithmetic
(separately or in combination).
Knowledge of Common Things or Nature Knowledge.
Mensuration and Preparatory Mathematics.
Workshop Arithmetic, etc.
Elementary and General Science.
Elementary Drawing.
Life and Duties of a Citizen.
Reading and Recitation.
Music (Theory and Singing).
General Courses (Civil Service, etc.).

DIVISION I. LITERARY AND COMMERCIAL.

Any generalised or special subject of literary or commercial education may be recognised under this head.

English Language & Literature.	Commercial Arithmetic.
Welsh.	Commercial Correspondence and
Gaelic.	Office Routine.
French.	Book-keeping.
Spanish.	Shorthand.
Portuguese.	Typewriting.
Italian.	Mercantile Law and Practice.
German.	Banking, Accountancy, etc.
Dutch.	Economics.
Russian.	Logic.
Danish.	Theory of Teaching, School
Swedish.	Management, etc.
Japanese.	Psychology.
Latin.	Library Administration.
Greek.	General Courses [Matriculation,
Hebrew.	etc.].
Geography. and History (separately or together).	

DIVISION II. ART.

Courses of instruction under this head may be arranged with a view to the requirements of a particular craft.

DIVISION III. MANUAL INSTRUCTION IN WOOD, METAL OR OTHER MATERIALS.

Manual instruction must as a rule be connected with instruction in drawing. It may include instruction in the use of machine tools, but no course is approved which does not secure adequate training in the use of hand-tools. A course may be arranged in this division so as to form a preliminary training for any group of related trades or industries, but must not be specialised so as to be applicable only to a single trade or industry.

Wood-carving.
Wood-work.

Repoussé-work.
Metal-work.

DIVISION IV. SCIENCE.

Any generalised or special branch of Science, including Mathematics, may be recognised under this head. In cases where the instruction is arranged with definite relation to the requirements of a particular trade, or group of trades, and includes practical instruction in the trade methods necessary to illustrate corresponding systematic instruction in the underlying scientific principles, the rate of grant depends upon the extent to which the course is concerned with principles and their application, as distinct from practice in trade-processes with a view to the acquirement of manipulative skill.

(a) General :—

Introductory and Experimental Science.	Mineralogy.
Practical Geometry.	Botany.
Mathematics.	Biology.
Mechanics.	Zoology.
Physics (general).	Physiology.
Sound, Light and Heat.	Hygiene.
Magnetism and Electricity.	Navigation and Spherical and Nautical Astronomy.
Chemistry (theoretical and practical).	Surveying.
Physiography.	Agriculture.
Astronomy.	Horticulture.
Geology.	Rural Science.

(b) Science applied to Building and Woodworking Trades :—

Building Construction and Drawing.	Staircasing and Handrailing.
Surveyors' and Builders' Quantities.	Painters' and Decorators' Work.
Bricklaying and Masonry.	Carpentry and Joinery.
Plastering.	Cabinet Making.
Sanitary Science.	Chair Making.
Plumbing.	Wheelwrights' Work.
	Carriage and Wagon Building.

(c) Science applied to Engineering and Metal Trades :—

Machine Construction and Drawing.	Metal Plate Work.
Applied Mechanics.	Construction of Cycles and Motor Vehicles.
Engineering and Prime Movers.	Special Factory Machines.
Naval Architecture.	Civil, Municipal and Sanitary Engineering.
Marine Engineering.	Minor Metal Work Trades.
Boiler Making.	
Pattern Making.	

(d) Science applied to Mining and Metallurgy :—

Mining.	Metallurgy.
Mine Surveying.	Iron and Steel Manufacture.

(e) Science applied to Chemical Trades :—

Gas Manufacture and Coal Tar Products.	Pottery and Porcelain Works.
Oils and Fats.	Glass and Enamel Manufacture.
Photography.	Brewing.
	Dyeing and Bleaching.

(f) Science applied to Electrical Trades :—

Electrical Engineering.	Electro-plating.
Electric Lighting, Wiring, etc.	Electrotyping and Stereotyping.
Telegraphy and Telephony.	

(g) Science applied to Textile Trades :—

Weaving, Spinning & Designing.	Wool and Worsted Spinning and Weaving.
Cotton & Wool Trades (general).	
Cotton Manufacture.	Calico and Linen Printing.
Cotton Spinning and Weaving.	

(h) Science applied to Leather Trades :—

Tanning and Leather Work.	Boot and Shoe Manufacture.
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(i) Miscellaneous :—

Materia Medica.	Gas-fitting.
Microscopical Research.	Brush Making.
Mathematical, Electrical and Optical Instrument Making.	Upholstery Drawing and Drapery.
Watch and Clock Making.	Tailoring and Cutting.
Paper Manufacture.	Hat Manufacture.
Typography.	Furriery.
Lithography.	Milling.
Book-binding.	Breadmaking & Confectionery.

DIVISION V. HOME OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES.

Any course of instruction in Domestic Subjects, or in the proper performance of ordinary domestic duties or occupations, or in minor home industries, whether urban or rural, may be recognised under this head. The practical work of the students must not include the repetition of manipulative processes of which they have acquired a knowledge.

Needlework.	Breadmaking & Confectionery.
Dressmaking and Cutting Out.	Laundry Work.
Domestic Tailoring.	Dairy Work.
Millinery.	Gardening.
Embroidery.	Bee-keeping & Poultry-keeping.
Lace Making.	Basket Making.
Domestic Economy.	Ambulance, Home Nursing, &c.
Cookery.	Minor Home Industries.

DIVISION VI. PHYSICAL TRAINING.

Any course of Physical Exercises which aims at the general physical development of those attending it may be recognised under this Division. Managers must use all reasonable endeavour to encourage those attending classes for Physical Training to attend also classes recognised under some other Division. The courses of physical exercises must be specially adapted to the age and sex of those under instruction. No particulars of courses held under this Division, which is of recent introduction (1905), have yet been published.

By the regulations of the Board of Education no evening student may be registered for the purpose of a grant who is under 12 years of age or while still in attendance at any other school where his attendance is recorded for the purpose of a grant under other regulations of the Board. Teachers must, as a rule, be paid fixed salaries. The subjects and method of instruction must be suitable to the circumstances of the locality, and be approved by the Board of Education. The syllabus of each course must be approved by the Board. No student may be admitted to any course who, for want of sufficient preliminary training, is not qualified to derive advantage from the instruction given in it. The Government grant may be withheld on account of any student whom the inspector reports to be unqualified. The school must not be conducted for private profit or be farmed out to the teacher. The fees must be suitable to the locality, and must be approved by the Board, whose sanction is also required for the remission or the abolition of fees. The school must have adequate local support, and at least 25 per cent. of the expenditure of the school, or group of schools under the same managers or under the same County or County Borough Council, should be met from sources other than the Board of Education grant, such as fees, subscriptions, grants from the Local Authority or endowments. Each school has to be under the superintendence of a responsible body of managers.

In the subjects in the Preparatory Division and in

Division I. (Literary and Commercial) no lesson of less than one complete half-hour is allowed to count as instruction eligible for grant. In Division II. (Art) and Division III. (Manual Instruction) the minimum duration of each lesson must be one hour. In Division IV. (Science) and in Division V. (Home Occupations and Industries) the minimum requirement is 40 minutes for each lesson. In Division VI. (Physical Training) no lesson of less than 30 minutes, and no attendance of more than one hour on any one day is recognised.

No Government grant is paid for instruction in any subject or course in which less than 20 hours of instruction is given in the year, and no student's attendance at any course may be reckoned for grant unless he has received at least 14 hours of instruction in that course. The maximum number of hours of instruction upon which grant may be claimed in respect of any student in one year is in Divisions I to V 160, and in Division VI 60 hours.

The Board of Education presses for arrangements being made, so far as practicable, to provide for a progressive course of instruction for students attending in successive years. It also gives strong encouragement to the planning of courses which bear directly upon the needs of the trades and industries of the district.

Besides the evening schools and classes recognised by the Board of Education, many others exist which are doing excellent work and represent volunteer work of high social value. Among these classes should be mentioned the University Extension courses, the circles of the National Home Reading Union, the work at the University Settlements, classes at working men's co-operative societies, classes in connexion with Adult Schools, boys' and girls' clubs, and numerous other agencies of an educational character.

STATISTICS OF EVENING SCHOOLS UNDER GOVERNMENT INSPECTION IN ENGLAND AND WALES, 1902—1905.

The following table is based upon the Statistics published by the Board of Education.¹

	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.
1. Number of Evening Schools recognised by the Board of Education	5,624	5,579	5,706
2. Number of Students who attended at any time during the year [a student attending more than one school is counted once for each school]	657,594	696,882	718,562
3. The same in groups of ages.			
Age at entry :			
Between 12 and 15 years of age... ..	147,191	155,623	155,938
Between 15 and 21 years of age... ..	348,353	359,503	359,917
Over 21 years of age	162,050	181,756	202,707
4. The same divided according to sex :			
Male	403,629	422,478	441,432
Female	253,965	274,404	277,130
5. Fees :			
Number of students who paid for instruction	505,455	545,624	549,086
Number who received free instruction viz., Number admitted without fees	152,139	151,258	169,476
Number whose fees were subsequently returned in full	111,730	112,060	127,409
	40,409	39,198	42,067
6. Amount of Grant paid by Government	£285,126	£304,962	£320,762
7. Number of Students in respect of whom these grants were paid... ..	440,718	469,686	487,699

These statistics show that, in the session 1904-5, 22·09 per 1,000 of the population of England and Wales attended evening classes which were under inspection by the Board of Education. The total attendance was nearly three-quarters of a million (718,562). It is true that in this total some students may have been counted twice over. Those who attend more than one evening school are counted once for each school. But on the other hand the

1. "Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales, 1904-6." 1906. Cd. 3255.

statistics take no account of the very large number of students who attended the numerous classes which are carried on in the evening without recognition or aid from Government. Many of these classes are of high educational value. When, therefore, all necessary qualifications have been made, the statistics show that a remarkably large proportion of the population avail themselves of opportunities of instruction after the close of the day's work.

The number of students attending evening classes under Government inspection is increasing. Sixty thousand more attended in 1904-5 than in the corresponding session two years before. For three generations evening school instruction has been one of the most characteristic features of the English educational system. In no other country is greater zeal shown in the attendance at evening classes organised upon a purely voluntary basis. The educational facilities thus afforded are evidently appreciated more than ever by intelligent and vigorous young people, especially in the great centres of industry and commerce.

Out of every ten students attending the evening classes six were men. Less than one-third, but more than a quarter, of the total number of students were 21 years of age or over. The Government paid in grants about nine shillings per head of the total attendance. But these grants were paid upon 67·8 per cent. of the aggregate number of students whose attendance was registered during the year. Out of every ten students who joined the classes, three failed to complete the full attendance.

On the teaching staff, men are in a large majority. In the evening classes conducted under Government inspection in 1904-5, there were more than twice as many male teachers as female. The total number of teachers engaged was 26,588. Of these, 19,149 were men and 7,439 women.

ENCOURAGING DEVELOPMENTS.

Much has been done within the last two or three years, especially in London and in the manufacturing districts of the Midlands and the North, to make the work of the evening schools bear more directly upon the industries of the neighbourhood.¹ There have also been great improvements in the grouping and classification of the evening schools in many towns, some of the schools being charged with the duty of providing suitable courses of preparatory instruction, from which the student passes on first to an intermediate evening school and thence to the advanced courses at the Technical Institute. Such improved organisation of evening school work in a town makes it possible, as well as expedient, to raise to sixteen or seventeen the age of admission to the Technical Institute, a change which relieves its classes from the juvenile or ill-prepared students more suitably taught elsewhere. The educational usefulness of the Technical Institutes has also been materially enhanced by an increasing tendency towards closer co-operation between their managing committees and the local employers of labour. This co-operation, which is especially noticeable in the engineering trades, is an outcome of the marked increase of personal interest taken by many employers in the technical education of their apprentices. Nor is this co-operation confined to the encouragement of evening technical classes. With increasing frequency employers so arrange the conditions of employment as to enable some of their apprentices to attend day-classes at a technical institute at convenient times in each week. This change in the attitude of employers towards the tech-

1. Details are given in C. H. Creasey's "Technical Education in Evening Schools" (London: Sonnenschein, 1905); and in H. S. Lloyd's (Board of Education Educational Pamphlet, No. 2, 1905).

nical education of their apprentices, combined with a growing appreciation of the value of educational opportunities on the part of the young men concerned, is giving a strongly marked technical character to the work of the evening classes in many districts. But, though this is the prevailing tendency, there is also a movement of opinion amongst workmen in favour of classes of a non-utilitarian character, in the belief that, in the training of citizens, opportunities for general culture are needed as well as facilities for technical education. This point of view has been effectively represented by the leaders of the Workers' Educational Association, and the Board of Education have recognised many courses of systematic class work in Literature, History, Art and Natural Science, in response to applications made through the local Higher Education Committees. These classes are frequently recognised in connection with courses of University Extension lectures, and as a help towards their organisation the Gilchrist Trustees are prepared to make special grants in aid.

Encouraging in themselves, these developments derive a greater importance from the fact that they are part of a widespread movement in public opinion. The nation is beginning to concern itself seriously with the social bearings and economic effects of its school system. It is already clear that any effective reform of the evening classes will depend upon changes being made in other grades of education and in the conditions of employment of young persons. The fundamental need is for an improvement in the elementary schools. The large classes should be reduced in size. Every class should be in the charge of a fully qualified teacher. The leaving age should be raised. There should be more physical training. The curriculum should include much more active and constructive work, and be simplified in other directions. In

the highest standards there should be greater variety of courses, according to the aptitudes of the pupils and their prospective needs. Beyond the elementary school but in well-planned continuation of its work, we need a greatly increased number of secondary craft schools both for boys and girls. In these schools the course of training should be practical without being narrowly utilitarian. The secondary craft schools, not less than the secondary schools of another type, should train their pupils in scientific method of observation and reasoning, and by humane and cultivating studies induce a liberal outlook upon life.

These changes can only be brought about by slow degrees but their effect will be to strengthen the fast-growing sense of the value of well directed education, to encourage parents to make increased sacrifices for their children's welfare and to furnish the evening classes in technical and other subjects with larger numbers of well-prepared students. In the meantime, for what has been accomplished in the better organisation of the evening schools within the short space of the last three years, the nation has reason to be grateful to the Technological Branch of the Board of Education and to many members and administrative officers of the local education authorities. Not the least important result of their labours is the clear perception of the fact that the reform of elementary education must now be undertaken upon a comprehensive plan.

DIFFICULTIES.

The most pressing difficulties with which the organisers of evening continuation schools in England have at present to contend are four in number. The first is the need for closer linkage between the elementary day school and the continuation class which ought to follow it. The second is the educational apathy of most country districts. The

third is the question of teachers. The fourth arises from the long hours of employment which leave too narrow a margin of strength or leisure for the further education in the case of great numbers of young people.

(1) In the great majority of cases, boys and girls are under no educational supervision during the critical years of adolescence which follow the close of their elementary day school course. This problem, the "continuation school" problem in the primary sense of the term, has not yet been seriously grappled with in this country. Its existence is the most formidable obstacle to the success of the work of those who are engaged in the organisation of evening schools. The official statistics show that, in spite of all that has been done during the last few years to increase the usefulness of the continuation schools, there is reason for disquietude as regards the proportion of pupils who, on leaving the day school, pass beyond the reach of educational influence. The majority of children still leave the English elementary day schools shortly after their thirteenth birthday. Yet in spite of the increase in the population, the number of evening school students under 15 years of age was hardly any larger in the session 1904-5 than in that of 1903-4. The total for the earlier of the two sessions was 155,623; that for the later, 155,938. This trifling increase of 315 shows that the local authorities had not succeeded, down to the date at which the statistics were calculated, in doing much to stop the wasteful leakage which takes place at the close of the day school course. Unfortunately the statistics of the Board of Education fail at present to furnish us with the detailed information necessary to an accurate knowledge of the precise position of affairs as regards the attendance of the younger pupils at evening schools. The tables, instead of showing the age of the pupils year by year, group them under three terms of years,

viz., 12-15, 15-21, and over 21. But what we especially want to know is the number of pupils in attendance at the evening schools who are between 13-14, 14-15, 15-16, and 16-17 years of age, and to be able to note the increase under each of these heads from year to year. The statistics, however, as at present published, do not enable us to do this. The first heading indeed (12-15) is fairly satisfactory for the purpose, though even here greater detail is desirable. But the second heading (15-21 years of age) does not permit us to ascertain whether the evening schools are retaining or increasing their hold upon the young people during the critical years 15-17. Yet even as they stand, the figures are discouraging. The number of pupils between 15 and 21 years of age in attendance at evening schools was almost as large in the session of 1903-4 as in the session (the last for which statistics are available) of 1904-5. In the first the total was 359,503; in the second, 359,917. Thus even if the whole of this insignificant increase (414) were confined to the number of pupils between 15 and 17 years of age, the result would be unsatisfactory when it is remembered that the evening schools have so far touched only a small proportion of the young people of those ages and when the growth of population is also taken into account. But there is nothing to show that the increase, such as it is, is an increase of pupils between 15 and 17 years of age. The larger total may be due to an increased enrollment of pupils between 17 and 21. That this is likely to be the case is shown by the fact that the really material increase in the number of students attending evening classes in 1904-5 as compared with that of the previous session is under the head of students of 21 years and over. Of these, 20,951 more were registered in 1904-5 than in the previous year. This points to the conclusion that the evening classes are being increasingly recruited

by older students, and that the strictly continuative side of the work of the evening schools is far from being as strong as the social needs of the community require. At Widnes, however, out of every five boys leaving the public elementary schools, about four at once join the evening classes. And in several other towns in Lancashire and Yorkshire there has recently been a remarkable improvement in this respect.

It is impossible to say with precision how large a proportion of that part of the population which is between 12 and 17 years of age (3,343,329 in England and Wales at the Census of 1901) is under educational care. Rather more than one-sixth (about 592,000) were on the registers of public elementary schools. Another 200,000 may be estimated as the number at public and private secondary schools. Another 230,000 may be taken as the number at evening schools. If the grand total is placed as high as 1,000,000, twice as many others are under no educational care. In other words, so far as it is possible to estimate the figures, out of every three boys and girls between 12 and 17 years of age in England and Wales, two are attending neither day school nor evening class.

Much is now being done in several places to encourage the pupils on leaving the elementary day schools to pass on to a secondary school or to an evening class. The rapid increase in the number of state-aided secondary schools shows a growing desire on the part of parents to secure for their children a prolongation of the period of school life. But the official statistics of the attendance at secondary schools in England are still, even as respects the schools under Government inspection, insufficient in point of details of age, and only one return of the number of pupils in attendance at all kinds of secondary schools, public and

private, has yet been published.¹ But there are reasons for thinking that the habit of sending children to secondary schools after a preparatory or elementary school course is spreading in England, though it has not yet become so common amongst us as it is in the United States. The secondary day schools, however, are unlikely for many years to come to receive more than a small proportion of the children who leave the elementary day schools. Nor would the present types of secondary school curriculum be the best fitted for the great majority of the boys who must begin to earn their living at an early age in some industrial calling. But it is encouraging to find that in many towns great efforts are being made to secure the attendance of these boys at suitable evening classes. At Rochdale, half the boys under 17 who have already left the day school are in attendance at evening schools. At Halifax about 58 per cent. of the children who leave the public elementary schools join the evening continuation schools within a year or two of their ceasing to attend the day school. In both cases, this satisfactory result has been secured by the wise grading of courses of instruction; by zeal on the part of the teachers in the day and evening schools; by the pains taken by the Borough Education Committee and its administrative officers to bring home to all pupils on their leaving the day school the importance of passing on to the evening school without a long break in their studies; and by unity of purpose in the use of the educational resources of the town. The provision of an excellent system of schools and classes is not in itself enough to secure a high rate of attendance at the evening classes on the part of young people who have just completed their day school course. Every boy and girl who leaves the

1. That issued by the Education Department in 1898 (Cd. 8634). The figures refer to 1897.

elementary day school must be approached individually and urged to attend the evening school. This is illustrated by the case of the City of Bath. In that city the elementary and secondary schools and the evening classes have been skilfully planned by the Education Committee. Since the Director of Studies (Mr. Godfrey Day) started the present organisation seventeen years ago, a remarkable advance has been made in the educational provision of the town. But of the 148 boys who left the elementary schools in the school year ending July 1906, not more than 24 per cent. joined the City secondary school or the evening schools, though the corresponding percentage (32) of girls was more satisfactory than is usually the case.

(2) Difficulties of a special kind arise in the organisation of continuation schools in country districts. The farmers as a class dislike the modern developments of education. Their objection is based on three grounds. First, that what is ordinarily taught in elementary schools has little bearing on the practical duties of life in the country, and that boys get from it very little that helps to make them shrewd and industrious labourers. Secondly, that the education is driving the people into the towns and giving them a false idea of their abilities and place in the world. Thirdly, that the law of compulsory school attendance interferes with the supply of boy labour in agriculture. In respect of the last-named point there is a conflict between what the farmers believe to be their economic interest and the claim of the labouring population for good educational opportunities for their children. The movement of the population to the towns is due to economic and psychological causes of far wider range than the influence of the village school. But with regard to the first of the three criticisms named above, it would be generally admitted that until recently the course

of study, and still more the spirit of the teaching, in the great majority of village schools has failed to grip the practical interest of most of the older boys committed to its care. Within the last five years, however, the local education authorities in many of the country districts, guided and encouraged by the Board of Education, have addressed themselves to the task of training village teachers to base a considerable part of their instruction upon practical work and the intelligent study of nature.¹ A change of this kind, however, is necessarily slow in producing its results, and there are still many schools which have not been touched by its influence.

Another cause of the difficulty in the country districts is that of expense. The rates press with severity upon a form of industry which has been hardly hit by the importation of food stuffs from abroad. Thus the poverty of some of the neighbourhoods, combined with the hostility felt by many farmers towards education, results in a provision of education so inadequate to the real needs of the people as to leave them, if not in apathy towards educational matters, at least in a state of indifference. I am inclined to think, however, that the work of the rural elementary schools in England has been a good deal misunderstood and undervalued. It is just to criticise some parts of their more old-fashioned curriculum, but the country-side owes a great debt of gratitude to the devotion of the good village teachers, and to the parsons and others who have interested themselves in the work of the schools. Different parts of England vary so greatly in social condition and in attitude of mind, that it would be difficult for anyone to generalise on this subject. My own experi-

1. The memorandum, prepared by Mr. T. S. Dymond, H.M.I., for the County Council of Durham, on "Rural Education in South and West Durham; its suitability to rural needs" (Durham: G. Bailes, 1907) contains many practical suggestions for the curriculum of rural schools.

ence is limited to three agricultural counties. In two of these I found distinct evidence that during the last twenty years the schools have increased the intelligence of the agricultural population and have made the younger generation more adaptive to the varied tasks of rural life as it is carried on under modern conditions. But even among those most favourable to education, there is a widespread feeling that the rural schools might do more to cultivate an intelligent interest in country pursuits. It is thought by some that the present course of education is apt to stimulate the prevailing tendency to restlessness (this probably cannot be helped), and that many of the children receive a good deal of bookish instruction which they are not able to take in or profit by.

Thus the most urgent need in rural education is not the organisation of continuation schools (useful as these are) but the improvement of the elementary schools. Such an improvement, however, would be a very costly business. What is wanted is an all-round improvement in the prospects of the village teacher, so as to attract some of the most capable men and women into rural work. It is also desirable that more of the training colleges should have departments devoted to the special preparation of teachers who desire to learn how to make the fullest educational use of the material that will lie to their hand in any country district. The country teacher ought to be one of the leaders in all the social and economic activities of his village. But the causes which impede any rapid change in this matter are deep-seated in English history. There is no reason, however, for discouragement in the outlook. As the country schools become more practical, they will be more valued. A younger generation will grow up which will realise the importance of education and its direct bearing on social welfare and economic prosperity. And there

are some signs of a happy change in the old relationship between the village clergyman and the village teacher. In former days, for reasons which were part of the web of English social life, the relationship was often like that between the parson and the parish clerk. But some of the best hopes for the social welfare of the English country districts depend upon there springing up between the parson and the teacher a spirit of comradeship in public service.

In the improvement in the rural schools it would be a grave mistake to give the course of study too utilitarian a cast. The essential thing is to develop the intelligence of the children, to stimulate their imagination, to widen their outlook, to give them a scientific and practical interest in the world around them, to train their sense of its beauty, to give them a clear notion of the laws of health, and greater skill in household management and handicraft, to inspire them with a strong sense of civic and national responsibility and to train them in the spirit of co-operation for common ends. A keen perception of the relation between cause and effect; better physical development; *esprit de corps*; the habit of collective action; and a sense of citizenship and of national duty are the things which the schools should endeavour to cultivate.¹

In many agricultural parts of England, the educational improvements which are really needed in the interests of the children cannot be afforded (except in part) unless the Government pays out of the national revenue a much larger proportion of the cost than is at present the case.

I cannot share the opinion of those who desire to curtail the period of day school training for country children. Admitting to the full the difficulties of the present situa-

1. A detailed discussion of methods for the improvement of rural education in England will be found in the "Report on Secondary and Higher Education in Essex," 1896 (County Offices, Chelmsford), pp. 68 and 75.

tion, I would submit that we ought to aim at keeping all the children in the country at a school with a suitable curriculum until they are 14 years of age. That during part of this time exemption from school attendance should be permitted during certain periods of the year, on condition that for twice as long a period attendance is subsequently made at the continuation school is a plan regarded with favour by many persons with long experience of country life.

The Board of Education have recently issued an excellent memorandum on courses of work in rural evening schools. It is to be feared, however, that many of the suggestions will for the present remain on paper. It is the rise of a new spirit in the country districts that is most to be hoped for. If that new spirit comes, the interest of the country people will guide them along the new road in education. In the meantime it is satisfactory to note how much is being done by many of the County Education Authorities, aided by many public spirited local residents, to improve rural education. An account of what is being done in several agricultural counties will be found on pp. 209-237.

(3) The third great difficulty in the organization of evening classes in town and country alike arises from the failure on the part of great numbers (it is to be feared the majority) of employers to recognise their responsibility towards the further education of the young persons in their employment. To this general failure of the sense of educational responsibility there have always been numerous and bright exceptions, and it would be unfair harshly to criticise the past in the light of the changed ideas of the present. Within the last few years, moreover, there has been an encouraging increase in the number of employers who take pains to further the education of their younger

workpeople. An account (necessarily imperfect) of what is now going forward in this matter will be found in Chapter VIII. But the efforts of the good employers must not lead us to overlook the failure of the bad ones. I have myself been led to the conclusion, which I submit to the consideration of the reader, that the most effective way of dealing with the difficulty will be to throw upon all employers by statute the duty of granting, to those of their (employers) male and female workpeople who are under 18 years of age the necessary time for attendance at continuation classes at hours prescribed by the bye-laws of the local education authority. In addition to this, ~~power~~ should be given to the local education authority to make attendance at continuation schools, at hours not incompatible with the physical well-being of the pupils, compulsory for young people up to 17 or 18 years of age. The enforcement of such a law would require discretion, but it is not open to the critic to contend that it is an impracticable proposal or incompatible with the industrial and commercial interests of a nation. A law, to the precise effect of that suggested above, has been in force in Germany for several years, and has produced results so excellent that the system meets with general approval.¹ The same principle of imposing responsibility on the employer is the key note of the new Apprenticeship Act of the Canton of Zurich, dated November 21, 1905.

(4) The fourth group of difficulties which impedes the better organisation of Continuation Schools in England and Wales is connected with the teachers. No one who has studied the work of such schools can forget the impression made upon his mind by the devotion, sympathy and educational skill of very many of the teachers who work in them. In England we have not

1. See Chapter XVIII.

yet realised to the full the debt which the nation owes to its teachers. But the conditions under which many of the evening school teachers have now to do their work are incompatible with true efficiency. They often go to their duties wearied and jaded by long hours in the day school, work in which is exhausting to a degree unknown to those who have not undertaken it. Yet the continuation school especially needs fresh ways of teaching and a departure from the routine of the day school. The pupils are older and need a course of instruction different in subject-matter and in treatment from that which is suitable for younger children. There is no way out of the difficulties which at present confront us, except a larger staffing of the day schools and a provision that no one engaged in continuation school work shall teach in the morning, afternoon and evening of the same day. In the continuation schools, it is true, a large and increasing number of the teachers will be persons not engaged in ordinary day school work. But for the continuation school in the strictest sense of the word no one can compare in fitness with the day school teacher. We need to keep the day school and the continuation school in closest relationship through personal ties, but to secure in the latter a stimulating change in the courses of study and in the general outlook of the work. If the continuation school is to become a great power in national education we must improve the conditions of day school employment. It is true that there is at present a scarcity of teachers and therefore the proposal here made is not one which can immediately be realised. But can we escape the conclusion that if national education is to play its true part in our national life we must be prepared to increase materially the financial prospects of the teachers, and especially of the men teachers, whom we desire to attract into its service?

The teacher's work in the day school and in the evening school should be viewed as a whole. In framing the conditions of his appointment this double duty (where it exists), should be taken into account. A teacher's duties in the day-school should be so arranged as to enable him to come to the work of the continuation school with the freshness of mind and the previous preparation which it requires.

The Education Act of 1902 has prevented some of the Local Education Authorities from taking this synthetic view of day and continuation school-work. By the Act evening schools (including even the most elementary form of them) are counted as forming part of higher education. In the work of the Local Education Authorities it is generally found necessary to have separate committees for elementary and for higher education. One effect of this is that the problem of the day and continuation schools does not always receive synoptic attention. A further result is that more thought is now being given to the technical type of evening classes than to the continuation school proper.

The length at which the difficulties of the continuation school in England have been discussed in this chapter will not, I hope, have led any reader to regard the future of those schools with serious discouragement. On the contrary, at no earlier time in the history of English education has the importance of this part of the educational problem impressed itself more generally on the thoughts of all who are studying the subject. The fact that we realise the difficulties of it, is in itself a ground for hope. And when we cast a glance over the rising importance and efficiency of the continuation school in every part of Western Europe, we know that it is not over-

sanguine to expect the advent of new life to the continuation school in England also. Partly through our geographical position, partly through a conservative attitude of mind, we in England (I am speaking of public opinion as a whole, and not of individuals) are a little slow to feel the impulse of a new educational need. But when we see a strong educational movement spreading through Germany, France and Denmark, we may be fairly certain that in due time the same sort of weather will reach our shores.

The danger, however, in the present movement for the extension of continuation schools in Germany is the over-emphasis of technical training. Not that technical training is to be deprecated, but no course of further education for young people will be adequate either to the economic or to the spiritual needs of the nation, unless it is at one and the same time practical and humane.

CHAPTER III.

Evening Schools in London.¹

GROWTH OF THE EVENING SCHOOLS.

THE Evening School movement, as we know it, took form in London in 1882. Night schools had existed before 1870. They were very few and very rudimentary. The high ideals of the Working Men's College had inspired few imitators. The mass of the population was not even partially educated. Grants were given only for reading, writing and arithmetic. In 1872 the School Board started some classes for scholars under eighteen. [The code of 1871 defined the maximum age of scholars in Day and Evening Schools as eighteen.] But in 1875 these were abandoned. Some successful science and art classes had also been started at the instance of the Science and Art Department, and continued after 1875 as self-supporting classes; but no serious attempt to organise evening education was really possible until the work of the Day Schools began to be felt in a definite demand for continuation schools.

In 1882 the School Board once more recognised its responsibility, and enrolled some 9,000 scholars in its Evening Continuation Schools. In 1882 the Youths' Christian Institute, which Mr. Quintin Hogg had founded

1. Throughout this chapter I speak strictly of the Administrative County. The population in 1891 was 4,228,317; in 1901 it was 4,536,541. Greater London increased in the same ten years from 5,633,806 to 6,581,372. Few of the scholars in the ordinary Continuation Schools live in the outer zone. A considerable number of the scholars in the Polytechnics and Commercial and Science and Art Centres work in Central London, but live in the outer zone. Not seldom they attend the classes on their way home from work.

in the Seven Dials, ousted Pepper's Ghost from the old Polytechnic, and settled in its place. There are now upwards of 120,000 scholars on the rolls of our Evening Continuation Schools, and 40,000 on the rolls of the Polytechnics and Schools of Art, besides the students at King's College and University College.

Between 1882 and 1890 the work of the Evening Continuation Schools¹ was still virtually restricted to the three R's, and the numbers rose but slowly to 18,000. In 1890 the Education Code Act and the new Code abolished the restriction; the numbers rose at once to 31,000, and in 1897 reached 57,000. In 1898 fees were abolished, and the numbers sprang up to 109,000, and advanced in the next two years to 125,000 and 146,000. Since then they have slightly fluctuated with the wavering policy of the Department and of the Board and Council. In 1905-6 the roll was 156,604. This year (1907) there is a drop of about 20,000 in the roll. But the efficiency of the work as tested by the "student hours" worked, has increased steadily, as the material has improved, and a tradition has gradually grown up.²

TYPES OF EVENING SCHOOLS.

Our Evening Schools have grown up with little premeditation or design, very much as the resources of a district or the genius of an individual has decided. But they tend to

1. As a matter of convenience I shall try to keep this name for the Continuation Schools proper, whose curriculum is intended to be continuous with that of the Elementary Day Schools; and to use the name Evening School in the wider sense, for all forms of evening instruction.

2. The figures are in each case those of the students enrolled. The effective attendance is very variously calculated. Perhaps 60 per cent. would fairly represent the number who work steadily through the session. For the Continuation Schools and Commercial and Science and Art Centres the last detailed figures are those for 1902-3. The figures for the subsequent years cannot be supplied "as they have not yet been submitted to the Committee of the Council."

five fairly distinct types. First, the ordinary Continuation School, collecting the old scholars from two or three neighbouring Day Schools, staffed as far as possible with teachers from those schools, and mainly concerned to keep these scholars together and to prevent their losing what they have learnt. Second, the Higher Grade Continuation School, often developing into the Commercial School, whose scholars come as a rule from better homes, enjoy better conditions of work, have passed the seventh or ex-seventh standard, and come to the evening school with a definite object. Third, the Polytechnics and Schools of Art, where the apprentice or "improver" is turned into the skilled workman, and the workman finds the means of widening and completing his skill and knowledge. Fourth, the Commercial School, sometimes held in the Polytechnic buildings, usually in the buildings of an Elementary School, where the clerk finds instruction in languages or Commercial Geography or the Machinery of Business. Fifth, the distinctively University work, largely concentrated in such colleges as King's College, the Birkbeck, and the London School of Economics, but also widely scattered through the Polytechnics and other schools.

It is interesting to notice that the old type of evening school where adults found instruction in the elements of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, has practically disappeared, though scholars of forty and upwards are still not rare.

Of the five types the first and second are concerned with the scholars as they leave the Elementary and Lower Secondary Schools. The third and fourth deal with young men and women who have found their definite work in life. The fifth is a sadly small, but most important, class of work which should inspire and crown the rest. At present it is stunted and strangled by the policy of London

University, which has not yet recognised the essential difference between what can rightly be asked of the leisured student of a residential university and of the working men and women of London. To this I shall return.

LONDON CONDITIONS.

Seventy-five thousand children leave the Public Elementary Schools of London every year. Of these the immense majority leave at fourteen. Six or seven thousand leave earlier, to enter Secondary Schools or for some less satisfactory reason; eight or nine thousand leave rather later. About a quarter reach the seventh standard. About a tenth reach the ex-seventh. Three-quarters leave below the seventh standard.

At fourteen the son of well-to-do parents is just entering his Public School. He will remain a boy for another four or five years. At fourteen the "elementary scholar" starts his life-work, free to stand but prone to fall. Henceforward he will fend for himself, and not improbably help to support his home.

The two years which follow are the most difficult and the most dangerous in his (or her) life. The boy or girl is still too young to obtain good employment. The better openings, just because they do lead to something permanent, naturally offer the least commencing wage. Errands, shops and baby-minding are the commonest forms of employment. Hours are extremely long and very irregular. At sixteen or seventeen, when good employment begins, the greater part of what was learnt at school has been forgotten, and the boy or girl is often less apt than when the Day School was left, two or three years previously.

The first and gravest problem for our Evening Schools is to catch the children as they leave the Day School, and

to carry them safely through the next two years. It is far from solved. In fact, barely a third of the names of those who leave the Day Schools appears on the rolls of Evening Schools; and of these perhaps two-thirds make a fairly regular attendance.

It is commonly assumed by critics of our elementary education that the fault lies with the schools; and that the Public School boy of the same age has so thoroughly assimilated what he has learnt, and is fired by so ardent a love of learning, that, if forced to leave school at fourteen or fifteen, he would forget little; and after hanging behind a cart for ten or twelve hours in the day, would hurry off from his tea to evening classes on three evenings in every week. Our Elementary Schools are very far from perfect. The size of the classes often crushes the individuality and life of teacher and taught. Only their enemies call them complete or satisfactory. But if our critic's conception of the Public School boy is approximately accurate, he is singularly changed, or my memory of Rugby five-and-twenty years ago, is strangely at fault.

No doubt London offers peculiarly unfavourable conditions for evening classes. In cities, where great factories with regular shifts of workmen form a serious proportion of the total industry, shorter and more regular hours prevail. But here at least two-thirds of those who leave the Day School escape the net of the Evening School; and it must be remembered that these two-thirds include just those children who need its guidance and influence most. The Day School has the unique advantage that all are compelled to come in. The Evening School, like the Club or Church or Chapel, reaches only those who choose to come. Those who most need the sermon stay away.

I. THE ORDINARY CONTINUATION SCHOOL.

Some day there will perhaps be a Continuation School in connection with every Day School. At present, the break between the Day Schools and the ordinary Continuation School is bridged over by securing teachers so far as possible from each of the contributory Day Schools. A strong club spirit is encouraged. Gatherings for social purposes are frequent. Such subjects as Gymnastics and Swimming, Dramatic Literature, Singing, History (with magic lantern assistance) form a large part of the curriculum. The attendance is bound to be comparatively irregular. Scholars often attend only for the last hour,¹ and will then often miss their tea to come. But solid work is done. Such schools in poor districts are sometimes praised, sometimes sneered at, as "missionary schools." There is truth in the phrase; but not when it suggests that steady work is not done; on the contrary, no class and no school succeeds unless the scholars feel that their time is not wasted.

Much might be done by the Managers to bridge over the gap, and carry on the less willing scholars from the Day to the Evening School. Nowhere is their help more needed. The Council made a disastrous mistake when it swept away the Old Managers of Evening Classes. The Committee of Managers should consist of representatives of each contributory Day School, together with others who can spare time in the evening only.

1. The hours are usually 7-30 to 9-30 on Monday, Wednesday and Thursday. In the Commercial Schools 7 to 10 on the first four or five days in the week. The Polytechnics are open every evening (besides their day work); but in these and in the more developed Commercial Schools scholars attend the particular class rather than the school.

II. HIGHER GRADE EVENING SCHOOLS.

The Higher Grade Evening School¹ springs from the Higher Grade Day School, as the ordinary Continuation School from the ordinary Day School. In the case of the Day Schools the distinction between the ordinary and the Higher Grade School has only gradually emerged and is still ill-defined. In the case of the Evening School the two are only distinguished in nature when Commercial or Science and Art Schools are built on the foundation of the Continuation School. But inside the school the distinction is real. Hereafter it will be recognised in name. The connection with the Day School is still important; but the scholars come with more definite, usually with more definitely utilitarian, aims. Their hours of work are shorter and more regular. Their homes are better and their prospects more certain. The staff is chosen rather with a view to special skill than to influence and enthusiasm. The Managers should include representatives of the neighbouring groups of ordinary Continuation Schools, just as the Committee of the Higher Grade Day School should be formed by representatives of the Managers of the contributory Day Schools.

No exact statistics can be given of these two types of evening school. Probably there are about 270 schools of the ordinary type and between 50 or 60 of the higher. Both were conducted by the School Board in Board Schools and Voluntary Schools alike; and the Council have made no change. Of the ordinary schools about 70 are quite free; a fee of 1s. is charged in the others. In the Commercial and in the Science and Art Schools, the fees are

1. The Council's statistics recognise only the two classes of Evening Schools—the ordinary Evening Continuation Schools and the Commercial or Science and Art Schools. The Higher Grade Evening School is either reckoned among the ordinary Evening Schools, or merged in the Commercial or Science and Art Centre which has grown out of it.

2s. 6d. and 5s. In December, 1906, there were 20,681 students on the rolls of the free and 65,990 students on the rolls of the fee-paying ordinary schools, and 25,904 students on the roll of the Council's Commercial and Science and Art schools. The figures for the Higher Continuation schools are included partly in the 65,990, partly in the 25,904.

There are also Evening Classes for the Deaf with about 400 on the roll; and a few classes conducted by the Council's teachers in social clubs and institutes.

III. POLYTECHNICS AND SCHOOLS OF ART.

Turning now from the Continuation Schools to the Adult Schools, we have the Polytechnics and Schools of Art for the artisan, and the Commercial School for the clerk; though once more the distinction does not always hold. Schools of Art are found in connection with the Polytechnics and with the Commercial Schools; some of the most advanced commercial work is done in the Polytechnics.

But, on the whole, the Polytechnics seem to tend steadily towards supplying the need of the apprentice and artisan, including the architect's drawing-clerks and the like. Further, the different Polytechnics tend to develop special "faculties." Thus the Northampton Institute has developed its faculties of metal-work and technical optics; the Central School of Arts and Crafts its silversmith's work. The Borough Polytechnic, besides its large classes for builders and plumbers, has its school of Bakery. The Cass Institute, growing up near the Mint, is steadily developing its school of metallurgy. Woolwich Polytechnic, growing up beside the Arsenal, has supplied the scientific instruction needed by the workmen there. Battersea Polytechnic has developed a close connection with the Engin-

engineering works of the London and South Western Railway, supplying a regular course of day classes for their apprentices, as Woolwich has done for the Arsenal's. So too classes are arranged in dresscutting and tailoring, for Messrs. Sélinecourt's apprentices. Chelsea Polytechnic has adapted itself rather to a clerkly population, while the Regent Street Polytechnic, with its 15,000 students, is almost universal in its range. Commerce, Trade, and Art and Science, divide fairly equally nine-tenths of its students, while Literary and University work still find a refuge in the remaining tenth. Lectures on History and Economics still draw large audiences. Nor has its original "missionary" impulse quite died out, as the vigour of its clubs, its organisation of thrift and travel, and of its definitely religious meetings, amply prove. Including the smaller colleges and schools there are some thirty institutions offering this type of instruction with fees varying as a rule from 7s. 6d. to 20s.

IV. THE COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS.

The Commercial Schools have usually grown out of the Higher Grade Continuation Schools. Where two buildings are available, the Continuation School and the Commercial School are sometimes kept distinct; otherwise they are merged, the Commercial School becoming constantly more important, the Continuation School less important. Hereafter they will probably become quite distinct; the Higher Grade Schools forming junior schools linked with Central Commercial Schools. They are usually held in the buildings of Elementary Day Schools, and the Headmaster (or responsible teacher) is generally a teacher in an Elementary School. But in many cases they have developed into important colleges with 1000 or 1500 students, demanding the same direction and control as the Polytechnics and Schools of Art. Offord Rd. School, Barnsbury, the Oliver

Goldsmith School, Camberwell, and Queen's Road School, Dalston, are three examples of schools which, starting as simple Evening Classes, grew into great colleges, with highly qualified teachers, and a curriculum covering the ordinary needs of those engaged in Banks, in the Civil Service, or in Higher Commerce.

V. UNIVERSITY WORK.

Of the University work done this is hardly the place to speak. The most interesting and important development has been the recognition of certain teachers in the Polytechnics as University teachers. Thus a student at Battersea Polytechnic may be an internal student of the London University. It is the more regrettable that so little University work is in fact done. The students are ready and waiting. The door is barred by a few petty academic requirements, admirably suited to boys of sixteen, utterly unsuitable for working men and women.

CURRICULUM.

The subjects studied have been indicated in discussing the various types of school. One or two points deserve special notice.

First, the absence of "humaner studies." I do not mean Latin and Greek, which in fact are sometimes taught; but the loving study of noble and beautiful things, whether in Literature or History or Art. The student in the Continuation School demands Shorthand and Book-keeping. The efforts of Mr. Stewart Headlam, of Mr. Cyril Jackson, and of Canon Jephson, introduced a little History (with lantern slides) into the curriculum. But their impulse is dying. Efforts at choral singing have by their sporadic success emphasised the general failure. The Schools of Art are probably above reproach; but the curricula of the Polytechnics (excepting Regent Street) show little provi-

sion for this side of education. The stimulus which London University might supply is wanting. Probably the smaller colleges, such as the Working Men's College, Toynbee Hall or Morley Hall are really doing most to foster the "humaner" spirit.

Next we may welcome the growth of the various Health lectures. They sprang out of the old Ambulance classes. In the spring of 1903 eighty courses of lectures were being given by doctors and trained nurses. Often, no doubt, the lecture has been over the audience's head. But alternate classes are usually taken by the teacher in charge, and the simpler facts are steadily sinking into teachers and students and becoming common knowledge.

Lastly, the very real success of many of the Domestic classes both for young girls and for adults deserves notice.

CO-ORDINATION.

Innumerable schemes have been suggested for co-ordinating the different types of Evening Schools, but so far with little result. Not impossibly more harm than good would have resulted from the adoption of any premature scheme.

A few Commercial and Science and Art Classes at Battersea have been transferred from the Polytechnic to the Plough Road and Lavender Hill Schools or vice versâ. But the students will not follow the classes either from school to polytechnic or from polytechnic to school. Similar transfers have been attempted between the Borough Polytechnic and the Paragon School, between the Paddington Institute and Essendine Road School, between Woolwich Polytechnic and Bloomfield Road School. But natural jealousies, differences of fee, above all the lack of any clear conception of the function of each school, have prevented any real co-operation. Yet where the special

functions are recognised, as in the case of technical classes for mechanics and artisans, a beginning has been made, and some preparatory classes in Workshop Arithmetic and Drawing, leading up to the Polytechnic classes, have been successfully started in several Continuation Schools.

But common inspectors, common teachers, and common managers, must be encouraged if the natural and rightful jealousies of school and school are to be avoided. Just as the managers of the Higher Grade School (Day or Evening) should include representatives of the contributory schools, so the Governors of the Polytechnic or Commercial School should include representatives of the managers of neighbouring Higher Grade Schools.

STAFF.

The teachers of Day and Continuation Schools are at present usually the same. In extreme cases a man or woman teaches 30 hours a week in the Day School, and 10 or 12 more hours in the Evening School. Great harm is thus being done, chiefly to the Day School; but vested interests have grown up; and when, with the revision of the scale of salaries in Day Schools, the Council's opportunity came for establishing a better system, vested interests won the day. But the abuse was freely admitted even by those who dared not vote against it.

Possibly the solution may be found by limiting the teacher strictly to ten half days' work in the week, and allowing him to teach less than full time in the Day School. The Evening School is not enough alone to occupy the teacher. He must do other work. Besides we need the link which the common teacher forms between the Day and the Evening School. The code of 1862 was right when it allowed teachers to be employed both in the Day and in the Evening School. But hitherto the theory, due largely to

obsolete codes and to inspectors, that one teacher is responsible for one class, has hindered such co-ordination. But that theory is being sapped. It is found that at least the upper standards of the Elementary Schools are the better for not being taught exclusively by one teacher from week end to week end. Subject teaching is gradually being introduced. Hereafter the teacher, when employed in the evening, may be free in the morning or afternoon. Responsibility for the Evening School may be the test and the stepping stone of the future Head-teacher. But sooner or later the present vested interests in overwork will have to be bought out.

REFORMS.

Much has been done. Very much remains undone. Two vital changes I would venture to urge once more.

I. AGE OF LEAVING DAY SCHOOL.

In the first place the age at which a child may leave the Elementary School should be raised first to 15 and then to 16. During those two years he has run to waste. He spoils himself and spoils the labour-market. At sixteen he would have fairly digested what he had learnt; he would have strength and skill to secure good permanent employment.

No doubt public opinion has to be educated up to the mark, and the curriculum of our Day Schools considerably modified. But those who remember the change in 1894 from thirteen to fourteen will discount the apparent difficulties. We anticipated almost a revolt. We experienced no difficulty whatever. Within a year parents had forgotten that they had ever been able to withdraw their children from school at thirteen.

In the Scotch Education Bill, introduced by the Government in March, 1907, but subsequently withdrawn, it was proposed to allow compulsory Evening Schools up to seven-

teen. In our own Industrial Schools the leaving age is fixed at sixteen, and a child may be recalled if necessary up to eighteen.

The Local Authority for elementary education should have the same power which is entrusted to the Governors of an Industrial School.

As it is, a great part of what we have spent on the child between five and fourteen is wasted between fourteen and sixteen. Two thirds of those who leave the Day School never enter the Evening School. Experience shows that even in the Polytechnics, voluntary co-operation with employers is only feasible in the case of a few great firms;¹ and that when it is really effective it tends to take the form of Day Classes rather than of Evening Classes. The Engineering Classes at the Northampton Institute, with their alternate half-years in the Institute and in the works, suggest a revised Pupil Teacher scheme. The local authority should have power to supervise the scholar's work up to eighteen, as the Industrial School does now. Up to sixteen no scholar should leave school except under special condition of apprenticeship, duly approved by the Education Authority.

II. THE UNIVERSITY.

Secondly I would have the London University recognise more fully its peculiar responsibility towards London. There are in London three great classes of men and women who need and who have a right to the University's guidance and encouragement—teachers, clerks, and artisans. They are at present excluded not by the standard of its examinations, but by their character. It is perfectly reasonable to ask a boy or girl of sixteen to study French and Latin,

1. The Association of Technical Institutions has published a very valuable report in an "Enquiry as to the Co-operation of Employers and Technical Institutions." St. Bride's Press, Fleet Street, E.C.

English, Mathematics and Chemistry, all at the same time. School means leisure. Is it not unreasonable to ask the same of a man or woman who has first to earn his own living? But there are in London thousands of teachers thousands of artisans, who would gladly give ten or twelve hours a week for five or six or more years in order to obtain a degree.

But to make this possible the subjects must be studied and presented for examination one or two at a time—consecutively, not simultaneously. On the other hand the standard might well be seriously raised. It seems to me that London University has never realised the difference between difficulty and excellence. Instead of setting a high standard she has insisted on difficult conditions. At present a teacher can scarcely obtain a degree without neglecting his school work. His object is necessarily to reach the very minimum necessary for passing. Yet he could easily reach a very much higher standard than is now demanded, if he might reach it in the various subjects successively. Probably he would work better and forget less quickly. The St. Andrews LL.A. is very much easier to obtain than the London B.A. It requires far less force and concentration. But it offers a better, a more intelligent, course of study to the teacher, and the number of women who work for it is rapidly increasing.

The case of the artisan is harder than that of the teacher. To the skilled engineer the Physics and Chemistry may present no difficulty. But the French or Latin and English are a quite insurmountable bar. The standard of the Matriculation is no doubt low. But to the artisan the multiplicity and the character of the subjects are crushing. Yet there are, I believe, hundreds of artisans in our Polytechnics, and there might easily be thousands, who are

quite capable of winning a good degree under reasonable conditions. Why, for an adult, should the Matriculation Examination, with its five heterogeneous subjects, be insisted on at all? Is it not possible to plan out a course of study for an engineer which shall guarantee all the width and depth which a University degree should imply, and yet omit French and English grammar?

Once more I do not want the standard lowered; I want it raised. A low standard and many subjects may be quite right for the school boy: it is quite wrong for the adult. Some years ago I helped to coach some unhappy teachers for the Intermediate Arts Examination. They knew no Greek. It was not required for Matriculation; it was not required for the Final. But it was required for the Intermediate; and the book set was the *Choephoroi*! Imagine a German forced to take up English for an intermediate pass examination, and given *Sordello* to study. Their time was wasted; their intellect brutalised; but they passed. Could any standard be lower?

The duty of a University is first to maintain a really high standard of excellence; and next to make its degrees as easy, not as hard, as possible of attainment. If London University would allow evening students to present their subjects successively it might and should materially raise its standard. If, for adult students, who have qualified by practical work, it would further dispense with the matriculation examination, substituting in the Intermediate and Final Examinations further but kindred studies, it might not only raise its standard, but at the same time bring thousands of new students within its influence; and give to the work of our Polytechnics and Commercial Schools a thoroughness, a width, and a consistency, that would raise our whole conception of education in London.

G. L. BRUCE.

CHAPTER IV.

The Evening Continuation Schools of Manchester, Leeds, Halifax, St. Helens, Bootle, and Widnes.—with a note on the Evening Schools of Rochdale.¹

ONE of the characteristics of many towns in the industrial districts of the North of England has long been a widespread desire for further education among those who had been compelled to leave school at an early age. This desire was originally met by the institution of night schools, including classes at Adult Schools, Mechanics' Institutes and the like.² The improved facilities for primary education provided by the School Boards which was established under the Education Act of 1870 lessened the demand for the elementary kind of evening class. Numbers in attendance at night schools rapidly declined between 1879 and 1884-5. At that time it began to be seen that a new type of evening school was needed in order to meet the requirements of children who had passed through the elementary schools. In 1888 the finding of Lord Cross' Commission on the Elementary Education Acts confirmed this view and encouraged the movement among the School Boards to strengthen this side of popular education. Thus in many districts in the later eighties vigorous efforts were made by the School Boards to establish systems of Evening Continuation Schools and their labours were furthered by important changes in the regulations for Evening Schools in 1890 and 1893. The supersession of the School Boards by the Education Act of 1902 and the substitution for them of Education Committees of County or County Borough Councils tended for a time to check the movement,

1. I wish to express my gratitude to the many teachers and other informants who so courteously assisted me in the inquiries upon which this chapter is based, and especially to the secretaries of the various Local Education Authorities who spared no pains in supplying me with accurate information. H. B. S.

2. See pp. 17-36.

but the Education Committees in the more progressive boroughs soon definitely faced the problem, and during the last two or three years there has been a great advance in the organisation of the Evening Schools. This advance in organisation has stimulated and guided the demand for evening teaching, with the result that we are witnessing the early stages of a great popular movement towards this special form of education. Much progress is already visible. With the aid of the Board of Education and its Inspectors courses of instruction have been organised to suit local needs; existing institutions have been graded, and, where necessary, new ones opened; and efforts have been made to raise the standard of attainment both of the teachers and the students. But what has been accomplished is but little in comparison with the achievements to which we may look forward in the future, if the movement ever realises its latent possibilities.

In this chapter I have tried to illustrate the development and present position of the movement by describing the systems of Evening Continuation Schools established in six typical boroughs. The work done in them, and in other equally progressive towns, is now so far advanced that it may serve in some measure as a guide to the organisation of similar systems of schools in districts where the conditions are at present less developed.

MANCHESTER.

The Evening Continuation Schools in Manchester have a special interest owing to the magnitude of the numbers with which they have to deal. In a city with an estimated population of 637,520, which has to provide all grades of instruction for thousands of students, with the most varied needs, including many who come in from the densely populated districts outside the municipal area, the organisation

must be more detailed and complete than is necessary in smaller towns. Manchester, therefore, provides us with a comprehensive statement of the problem and of the general lines on which its solution is now being attempted.

Further, the complexity of the interests involved in so large a centre of population necessitates a slower rate of educational progress, and the fact that Manchester is in some respects less advanced than the smaller towns considered in the sequel renders its example all the more instructive, as representing a critical stage in the process of development. We can also see more clearly than elsewhere the impossibility of creating a brand new system of Evening Schools without relation to the past. For a widespread desire for serious evening instruction is always of gradual growth, and until such a desire has been evolved no skill in organisation can give success to Evening Schools. Moreover if the schools are to prove attractive to those for whose benefit they are designed, they must be gradually developed to meet particular local needs and industrial conditions.

Lastly Manchester has long been the scene of earnest educational work.¹ Here, as in other places, young men are found who after a hard day's work spend their evenings in fitting themselves, by real intellectual labour, for further responsibilities. Many of the girls and young women employed in offices are equally earnest in their efforts at self-improvement, and in every evening school one sees earnest faces and strained attention. It is unfortunately no unknown thing for students to come straight from work, where they have been kept too late to be able to go home to tea. This keenness in the pursuit of knowledge is not peculiar to Manchester, though it is

1. For the part played by Manchester in the development of technical instruction, see pp. 25-26.

there more common than in some other towns, but in Manchester it has been met to an unusual extent by an answering desire to provide the requisite instruction.

A wish to spread the benefits of education in the widest sense among those least able to obtain them for themselves has long been characteristic of many of the citizens of Manchester. It has found expression in a number of institutions, such as the Mechanics' Institution, the Lower Mosley Street Schools, the Lads' Clubs, and the Recreative Evening Schools.

The history of the Manchester Mechanics' Institution, which was founded in 1824, has already been sketched (pp. 25-26). It has now developed into the Municipal School of Technology. In 1842 the Managers of the Sunday School in Lower Mosley Street began a number of week-day evening classes in such subjects as Natural History, Grammar, Geography and Arithmetic. In 1849 these classes were thrown open to those unconnected with the Sunday School, and after a somewhat chequered history they became from about the year 1875 onwards an important centre of education. At the present time, with the aid of a grant from the Education Committee, the Managers still provide Evening Classes in a large number of commercial subjects.

With the social work done by the Lads' and Girls' Clubs and Recreative Evening Classes we are not here concerned, but there can be no doubt that both types of institution have done much to spread the tradition of evening classes among a section of the population which too often stands aloof. The Recreative Evening Classes Committee has for the last twenty years provided instruction in such subjects as Drawing, Modelling, Music, Drill, Carving, Cookery, Dress-making and Laundrywork, cooperating at first with the Salford School Board, and afterwards with the Ragged School Union and other organisations. In the session of

1905-6 they maintained, by the help of two hundred voluntary teachers, 156 such classes with an average attendance of 2,800.

But these varied efforts to establish classes were not the only expression of Manchester's corporate interest in evening education. The School Board took up the question and gradually evolved a system of Evening Continuation Schools of which the City had good reason to be proud.

Thus in the session 1889-90, we find that 68 departments were maintained, giving evening instruction in various elementary subjects, and that on December 21st, 1889, these departments had on their books 8,180 students. In addition, there were Science and Art Classes with 3,165 and Commercial Classes with 2,900 students. In the session 1895-96, the total number of students had risen to 23,325, of whom 11,969 attended the Elementary Evening Schools. These numbers afford no basis of comparison with the attendances now made, the conditions being quite dissimilar, but they at any rate demonstrate the existence at that time of a living interest in evening education.¹

This success of the School Board in maintaining these Evening Schools would however have been impossible without the active cooperation of many of the Day School teachers. The wise policy was followed by giving the Head Master of the Day School charge of the Evening School conducted in the same building, and in most cases these Head Masters took up the work with a keen sense of its importance. With the assistance of an energetic and loyal staff they devoted time and labour to the solution of the various problems that confronted them. In the first place the task of keeping an Evening School together and of adapting the methods of teaching and discipline to the

1. Further statistics are given in Mr. C. H. Wyatt's interesting paper in the "Transactions of the Manchester Statistical Society, 1895-6."

needs of evening students is one requiring not only considerable personal gifts but also patience and laborious effort. But again if an Evening School is to be successful the Head Master and his staff must not only teach, they must also know how to attract the students. This can be done only by much personal influence and constant attention to the individual cases. The Head Master in particular must not rest until there has grown up among the children in his Day School a traditional custom of joining the Evening School on leaving. In several of the Manchester schools these conditions have been met. To take two instances of very different types. At one Evening School where the Head Master had charge of the Higher Elementary School carried on during the daytime in the same building, the relations between the teachers and the students were clearly of the most pleasant kind, and the Head Master told me that 80 per cent. of the boys who left his Day School during the last school year had come back to his Evening School this session (1906-7). In another school, situated in one of the poorest parts of Manchester and conducted by a Roman Catholic sisterhood, girls from the surrounding slums, when they leave the Day School to work in the mills, have for many years come back in large numbers in their clogs and shawls to attend school in the evening.

When, therefore, the Education Committee came into office in 1903, there were already in existence a strong Evening School tradition and also an extensive system of Evening Continuation Schools previously established by the School Board.¹ The next step was to strengthen this

1. Any reference to evening school work in Manchester should be accompanied by an acknowledgement of the service rendered by Mr. C. H. Wyatt, Director of Elementary Education, and formerly Clerk to the School Board, and by Mr. J. H. Reynolds, Director of Higher Education, and his assistant, Mr. Cowen. Mr. Reynolds was secretary of the organised classes at the Mosley St. Schools from 1875--9, and in the latter year became secretary of the Mechanics' Institution.

tradition and to develop further the various types of schools. To this work much labour has been devoted and a good beginning has been made. Three points in particular called for serious consideration. The students were often ill prepared; they took up unsuitable or disconnected subjects and the various types of school were not co-ordinated in a coherent system.

The first of these deficiencies the Committee attempted to meet by holding out inducements to students to join the classes immediately after leaving the Day School and by providing that no student should be permitted to take the more advanced evening classes without giving proof of his ability to profit by them. The second and third deficiencies they hope to obviate by instituting definite courses of instruction in carefully graded schools.

The first attempt to attract younger students was made three years ago. An enquiry made in November, 1903, showed that of the Evening Students then in attendance 52 per cent. had joined as soon as they had left the Day School, while in the case of 48 per cent. an interval of non-attendance had intervened. With the object of increasing the former percentage it was resolved to offer scholarships, in the form of free tuition for one session, to all children who began attendance at an Evening School immediately after leaving the Day School. In 1904-5, 4,052 such students took advantage of the offer, of whom 3,011 or 74 per cent. were in attendance on December 17th. How far this number was in advance of previous years I have been unable to ascertain. In the session 1905-6 a system of guarantors was introduced. Each child admitted free to an Evening School is required to bring a form signed by some person, by preference the employer, who guarantees to the Committee the value of the fees remitted in case the scholar fails to make a satisfactory

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number of attendances. This system has had a good effect in giving the employer, or failing him the parent, an interest in the student's work. Simultaneously with the grant of free admissions, the custom which had previously obtained of returning fees to students making a certain percentage of the possible attendances was curtailed and finally abolished. Prizes are now awarded for regularity in attendance and in homework, combined with success in the sessional examination. In this connection the following statistics are of interest, as giving some indication of the number of students who must have joined shortly after leaving the Day School.

Ages of Students in Evening Schools, Grade I. and II.,
during the Session 1906-7.

	Boys.	Girls.
Under 16 years	4,311	2,923
Between 16 and 18 years ...	2,086	1,345
Between 18 and 21 years ...	1,376	912
Over 21 years	2,032	2,132
Totals	9,805	7,312

The present session (1906-7) has also seen the introduction of organised courses of study, and a great advance in the co-ordination of the schools. There are now three main grades of schools. In the First Grade are the Evening Continuation Schools intended mainly for boys and girls under 17. The Second Grade Schools for somewhat older students, consist of the Branch Technical Schools, the Branch Commercial Schools, and the Evening Institute for Women and Girls, and to the Third and highest Grade belong the Municipal Schools of Technology, Commerce and Art.

The First Grade Evening Continuation School Depart-

ments are 75 in number, and in the present session (1906-7) the total number of students on the books total 7,458. In 1905-6 the number was 9,696. The decrease is attributed to the substitution of courses in place of single subjects and to the abolition of the weekly payment of twopence which was formerly in vogue, in favour of a sessional fee of 2/6 for scholars under 18 and 3/6 for older students, payable in weekly instalments of not less than 6d. The loss in numbers has, however, been more than counterbalanced by the improvement in the students' work.

In these schools there is a General Preparatory Course for boys and girls who have left school in a low standard or whose general education is for any reason specially defective. The subjects of instruction are mainly Reading, Writing and Composition, and Arithmetic, and the course extends over one or two years. In 1906-7 there were 2,580 backward students taking this course.

But in addition to this Preparatory Course these schools are also intended to provide a Preliminary Artisan Course for Boys, a Preliminary Commercial Course for Boys and Girls, and a Preliminary Domestic Course for Girls. All these courses involve attendance on three evenings per week for two years. The subjects in the Artisan Course are Workshop Arithmetic and Woodwork with Practical Drawing two hours each, Elementary Science and English one hour each. The English consists mainly of Composition; a common exercise is the description of experiments seen in the Science Class. But no literature is read. This Artisan Course is intended eventually to be superseded by a Preparatory Technical Course, which has already been introduced into four schools. This is identical with the Preparatory Course of the Branch Technical Schools described below. At present boys who have passed through the Artisan Course and wish to continue their studies will

be normally placed in the Second Preparatory year of a Branch Technical School, but the syllabuses of the two types of schools are not yet completely co-ordinated, and the passage from one to the other is not likely to be frequent.

The Commercial Course includes Commercial Arithmetic, English, Geography, Book-keeping or Shorthand, and in the second year Correspondence and Office Routine. Students who have passed through this Course will be fit for the second Preparatory year of the Branch Commercial School, though again the work is only as yet approximately coordinated.

Boys are placed in the Artisan or the Commercial Course according to their occupations. Girls may take either the Commercial or the Preliminary Domestic Course which in most cases consists of English, Household Accounts, Dress-making and Cookery or Millinery. In the second year Nursing may be taken. The English and Household Accounts are confined to the probable practical requirements of a housewife.

The numbers taking these courses were Artisans 871, Commercial 1,659, Domestic 2,051, Technical 203. There are also in a few schools survivals from the old régime in the shape of special courses for Junior and Invoice Clerks, attended (in 1906-7) by 70 and 24 students respectively.

Turning now to the Grade II. Schools we find Branch Technical Schools being carried on at six centres. They provide a Preparatory Course and four Special Courses. The Preparatory Course is taken in some schools in one and in others in two, one school having alternative classes. The subjects are experimental Mathematics, Preliminary Physics (*i.e.*, Mechanics, Hydrostatics and that with practical work) and English Composition. To be admitted a boy should have passed Standard VI. of the Day School.

The Technical Courses proper are those for Engineering,

Building Trades, Chemical Industries, and Electrical Work. They will hereafter cover two years, but last session most of the schools had naturally first year courses only, though one strong centre had courses extending over three years. There is also at two centres a special course for Rail Carriage Builders, and two centres have classes in Physiology and Hygiene.

In four schools instruction is given in Art.

The Preparatory and Engineering Courses have the greatest number of students. The total for all the classes in 1906-7 was 928.

There is at present no co-ordination between the Branch Technical Schools and the Municipal School of Technology, but it is intended that eventually there shall be a third year in the Branch Schools identical with the first year in the School of Technology.

The Branch Commercial Schools are seventeen in number. Their organisation is similar to that of the Technical Schools, but their Preparatory Course consisting of English, Arithmetic, Geography, and Commercial Correspondence is for one year only.

When the centres are fully developed they will provide two year courses for Shorthand Clerks, Junior and Invoice Clerks, Book-keepers, Correspondents and Shippers' Clerks, and for the Civil Service. Most of the schools also give a two years' Domestic Course which is identical with that in the Continuation Schools. Many of these courses are well attended and much interest is shown in the work. The total number of students taking group courses is 2,931.

In the Evening Institutes for Women and Girls the course system is not so rigidly enforced, but the students are expected to take up at least two subjects. There are nine such Institutes providing instruction in Cookery, Dressmaking, and Millinery, Laundry Work, Nursing and

Hygiene. Physical Exercises, Vocal Music and English are also taken at some of the Centres. The instruction is, speaking generally, adapted to the needs of class of students older than those in the Branch Commercial Schools. No one under sixteen is admitted, and a considerable proportion of the students are married women. During the session 1905-6 there were over a thousand girls and women in attendance at these Institutes.

In the schools of the Third or Highest Grade the introduction of the course system is not yet complete. All provide teaching in the elementary stages of their respective subjects and a large number of their students are under eighteen years of age. During the session 1905-6 there were in the School of Technology 1,188 students under and 4,744 over 18. For the School of Commerce the numbers were 910 and 2,574, and for the School of Art 209 and 674.¹ Of these students nearly half come from outside Manchester. The bulk of the work in these central Institutions is, however, of an advanced type and as such lies outside my subject. It is enough to say that the very highest type of specialised instruction is given in the senior classes.

It will be evident from what has been said that the Evening School movement in Manchester is full of possibilities. Its organisation is proceeding, and a great improvement both in work and attendance has already been obtained. But the most certain ground for confidence is the energy with which organisers, teachers and students are giving themselves to the work. The efficiency of the schools evidently varies, but in most of them there is an atmosphere of serious endeavour which in the earlier days of Evening Schools was too often lacking. The value of a

1. All the students at the School of Commerce attend in the evening, but at the School of Technology 635 and at the School of Art 410 students attend Day Classes only.

school cannot, however, always be measured by the standard of its work, and schools such as the Roman Catholic Schools in Ancoats and its neighbourhood are doing good service in keeping hold of boys and girls from the lowest social strata.

The difficulties against which the Manchester schools have to struggle are the usual ones. The indifference of too many of the employers and their foremen, added to much working of overtime; renders regular attendance for many students an impossibility. An adequate supply of really efficient teachers is not easy to obtain, and the students are often too tired, or too ill prepared to gain full benefit from the instruction. Lastly there is the danger of narrowness in curriculum and methods, leading the school to train the workman and to forget the man.

The Manchester authorities have a magnificent field before them, and their action will be watched with the greatest interest by all who are connected with Evening School administration.

LEEDS.

In several respects the Evening Schools in Leeds afford an instructive contrast to those in Manchester. The strength of the Manchester schools lies in the traditional interest taken in them, and the energy displayed by those connected with them; in Leeds the strong points are organisation and teaching. In Manchester the schools tend to be more popular, in Leeds more efficient.

The reasons for this difference are in part historical. When, in 1903, the Leeds Higher Education Sub-Committee undertook the reorganisation of the Evening Schools they found the ground prepared for them by the work of the School Board, of the Mechanics' Institutes and of the

Leeds Institute, but the efforts of these bodies, valuable as they were, had been on the whole less successful than those of corresponding organisations in Manchester. Speaking generally, the interest in evening instruction, was less widespread. On the other hand the time was ripe for a reconstruction of the whole system, and on Mr. James Graham's appointment as Secretary for Higher Education, far-reaching reforms were introduced which took effect in the session 1905-6.

The reforms were largely founded upon the results of a very interesting enquiry instituted by the Leeds Education Committee in the summer of 1905 into the character and distribution of the industries in Leeds. It was found that the five main industries arranged according to the number of working class heads of families employed in each, were Engineering (Mechanical and Electrical), the Building Trades, Commerce, the Leather and Boot Trades, and the Clothing Trades, and that most of these were centred in definite districts in the City. In addition there were a considerable number of persons employed in Chemical Industries, Mining, Textile Industries, and Printing.

In order that a coherent course of training for these occupations might be provided it was necessary that the work of other educational institutions in the City should be brought into line with that of the Committee's Evening Schools. This has been successfully accomplished; agreements have been entered into with the four old-established Mechanics' Institutes, by which the Committees of the latter continue to conduct the Evening School work of their districts, but they do so as Sub-Committees of the Higher Education Committee of the Borough. Arrangements have also been made with the University and the Committee of the Leeds Institute by which the co-operation of these bodies is secured. In the session 1906-7 all these institu-

tions took their share in one co-ordinated system of evening teaching.

This system includes four classes of schools; schools intended to provide technical training for skilled workers in the principal trades; schools giving a commercial course; schools for art students of all kinds; and schools for girls and women providing instruction in domestic subjects. Each of these classes of schools consists of institutions of various grades, coordinated so as to facilitate the passage of a student from one grade of instruction to another; and each class, therefore, calls for separate consideration.

The Technical Evening Schools are of four grades. In Grade I. are the general Preparatory Evening Schools, in Grade II. the Branch Artisan Schools, in Grade III. the Advanced Technical Evening Schools, while the Leeds University is of the Fourth or Highest Grade.

The Grade I. Schools are intended for boys who have left the Day Schools without having passed Standard V., and for men whose education is very defective. They are five in number; three are attended by boys, and the other two mainly by Jews and other foreigners who come for the purpose of learning English. The curriculum of the schools for boys includes English, Arithmetic and Experimental Mathematics, Drawing and in two schools Woodwork. In the two schools for foreigners a great deal of English is taken.

In addition to the Grade I. Schools several of those in Grade II. give elementary instruction to boys who have left school in a low standard, but in all cases the Preparatory Course is intended to lead up to the Technical Course proper. This Course is begun in nine Branch Artisan Schools, with first and second year courses, and in four Mechanics' Institutes which, for historical reasons, give third year instruction also. The curriculum for the

first year consists simply of Experimental Mathematics (four hours) and English (two hours). The former includes the sketching and measurement of models, decimals, fractions, contracted methods, some algebra and practical geometry involving graphs, and similar subjects. The whole is based on the actual dimensions of models and simple pieces of machinery. The English syllabus is a wide one; much practice is given in composition, largely in the form of descriptions of the work done in mathematics, or of essays on subjects arising out of the reading lesson. This session a good deal of reading has been introduced with the happiest results. A comprehensive list of suitable standard books has been drawn up, from which the Headmaster selects two or three likely to be appreciated by his boys. In one school, for instance, Lamb's "Tales from Shakespeare" and a book of ballads were being studied with great interest. When the boys took the books home with them for purposes of homework, they frequently brought them back saying that they had read them through. Boys are encouraged to buy copies for themselves, and this is often done. The reading has proved an aid to the composition. The boys like to write their ideas on what they have read, and hence compose with ease. "They have so much to go at," as one Headmaster expressed it.

The second year's course is made up of Experimental Mathematics (three hours), a continuation of the first year's work, including logarithms, more algebra and some solid geometry, treated on the same practical lines; two hours in the Mechanical Laboratory, in which the practical value of the mathematics is shown by its application to experiments in mechanics, hydrostatics, and heat; and one hour English of the same character as before.

For the third and fourth year Special Technical Courses have been arranged. These are taken partly at the Mechanics' Institutes, but mainly in the three Third Grade Schools. Apart from classes for Adult Workers, the Special Technical Courses are intended for Mechanical Engineers, Electrical Engineers, Architects and Builders, Chemical Workers, Textile Students, Printers, and Leather and Boot Trades. But each course is arranged with a view to further specialisation. For example, in the Mechanical Engineering Course provision is made for Fitters and Turners, Pattern Makers and Boiler Makers. Under the Building Trades Course come special Courses for Bricklayers and Masons, Plumbers, Sanitary Inspectors, Architects, Painters, Cabinet Makers, Plasterers, and the like, some subjects being taken in the School of Art.

Lastly, advanced students who have either passed through a four years' Evening Course, or can prove equivalent attainments, may receive further instruction in Evening Classes at the University.

Turning now to the Commercial Schools, we find them organised on similar lines. The same three Grade I. Schools prepare for the strictly Commercial Course, and the nine Branch Commercial Schools also provide, where necessary, Preparatory Courses in English, History, Geography, Mathematics and Drawing.

In the first two years of the Commercial Course the subjects are English, Commercial Arithmetic, Commercial Practice, Book-keeping, Commercial Geography and History and Shorthand. If the student possesses a sufficiently sound knowledge of English, a Foreign Language may be taken, otherwise this is postponed to the third or fourth year. Great stress is laid upon the teaching of English. The complete Course includes the History of English Literature, with the study of selected works, and

an outline of the History of the Language, as well as Composition and Précis Writing. Many of the schools are affiliated to the National Home Reading Union. The teaching of Foreign Languages is from the beginning partly oral. Advanced students are encouraged to join Modern Language 'Circles,' where lectures are given in the foreign language, followed by discussions or the reading of short essays.

In the three Advanced Evening Schools of Commercial Professional Courses are given for Bankers, Accountants, Auctioneers, Public Officials, Chemists, Grocers, and Railway Clerks, while in the University, Courses of Lectures are arranged on Economics and Commercial Law.

The Commercial Schools are open to both boys and girls, and are equipped with the necessary books and documents, as well as with lanterns, small museums, pictures of foreign life and the like.

The Evening Schools of Art are of three grades. In the First Grade Schools, three for boys and six for girls, a Preparatory Course is given, intended to train the eye, memory and taste. In the four Branch Schools of the Second Grade, instruction is given in Drawing of Common Objects, Elementary Design, Light and Shade, Clay Modelling, and Wood-carving. The Course in these schools is intended to lead up to the work done in the Central School of Art, with its departments for Architecture, Design, Modelling, Life Drawing and Painting, and the various Craft Schools.

Domestic Courses are also given in three Grades of Schools. In the eight Preparatory or First Grade Schools the curriculum includes Needlework, Dressmaking, Plain Cooking, House Management, and Household Accounts and Correspondence. In the eleven Young Women's Institutes of Grade II. Millinery, Laundry and Nursing are

added, while in the Central Institute more advanced instruction is given in the same subjects, with a special Course for Housekeepers.

In all these schools regular courses of instruction, involving attendance on at least three evenings of the week, are now taken, except in the case of Women's Institutes, where attendance on two or in special cases on one evening is allowed. The effect of the course system on the work is universally acknowledged to have been excellent. Homework is done and takes on the average one to three hours per week. There seems as a rule to be no difficulty in getting the students to bring it regularly.

The fees are 2s. 6d. for a course in First, and 4s. in Second Grade Schools. In Advanced Evening Technical and Commercial Schools 5s. or 7s. 6d. is charged; in the Central Women's Institute the fee is 15s., and for a University Course 10s. 6d. These fees are remitted on the recommendation of the Head Master in cases of poverty. The system of "free passes" which formerly obtained has been abandoned as unsatisfactory; students appreciate what they have to pay for; but there is an extensive scheme of Technical Evening School Exhibitions of which 100 Junior and 65 Senior were awarded last year. These exhibitions are awarded on the result of the session's work as shown by attendance, homework, and general progress. The Junior Exhibitions consist of a grant not exceeding 10s. towards the cost of books, etc., and the Senior of a corresponding grant not exceeding 30s. A condition of tenure is that the exhibitor should take an approved evening course during the following session.

The introduction of this organised system of instruction in 1905 produced a striking change in the attendances of the students. This will be clear from the following table of attendances:

		Beginning of Session.		8th Week.		End of Session.
1904-5	6,925	...	6,050	...	4,169
1905-6	6,945	...	9,850	...	7,937
1906-7	3,954	...	5,869	...	5,733

It appears from these figures that during the last two sessions the attendance, instead of falling off, has rapidly increased during the first weeks of work, and has continued high up to the end. In 1905-6 the highest attendance was registered on February 24th.¹

This result can only be attributed to the excellence of the teaching, and any visitor to the classes can hardly fail to be struck with the serious spirit that uniformly prevails. The Head Teacher in each of the Grade I. and II. Schools is an Assistant in an Elementary School; the other members of the staff may be either Elementary Teachers or Special Subject Teachers.

The success of the teaching, however, is, I think, due not so much to the choice of teachers, as to the fact that Evening School teaching is recognised in Leeds as a special art, requiring special preparation. Special Courses for Evening Teachers are held by highly qualified instructors in English, Arithmetic and Experimental Mathematics, Mechanical Laboratory Work, Commercial Geography, Commercial Arithmetic, and Commercial Practice and Book-keeping, with the object of helping actual or intending teachers in Evening Schools to gain both the necessary knowledge, and, what is equally important, the right methods of imparting it. These courses have been vigorously taken up, and have introduced into the Evening Teaching a wider outlook and less stereotyped methods.

The Leeds authorities have thus made a definite attempt

1. It should be mentioned that the figures given afford no basis for comparison of the numbers in attendance during the different sessions. The numbers in the first two sessions are those of class entries, in the last session those of individual students.

to deal with the problem of obtaining a supply of qualified teachers for their evening classes. They are also successful in getting their students at the most appropriate age. Probably as many as 75 per cent. join the Technical Evening Schools in the next session after they have left the Day School. But two great difficulties remain to be overcome. The first of these is the apathy or even antagonism of the employers. A few firms do, indeed, take an interest in the more advanced technical courses, and in a few instances apprentices' fees have been paid, but, speaking generally, no encouragement is given to boys and girls to attend. A great deal of overtime is worked, which often renders regular attendance quite impossible. Promising boys not infrequently stop coming to the Evening School as soon as they are eighteen years of age because they are then put on overtime. Cases have been known in which boys were discharged because they requested permission to attend evening classes. In the case of boys and girls not employed in factories the difficulty begins at an earlier age. It is very often quite impossible for shop boys and errand boys to attend, owing to the long hours during which their services are required. But, apart from any question of working overtime, it is not right for a boy of fourteen or fifteen who has to go to work at 6 a.m. to stay at an Evening School until 9-30 p.m., and it is no use trying to get a large attendance of young boys at the Artisan Schools until the co-operation of the employers is secured.

The second difficulty, which unfortunately is by no means confined to Leeds, is connected with the methods of work obtaining in some of the Elementary Day Schools. On this point I speak with diffidence as my opportunities for observation were limited, but I gathered from the testimony of competent observers that a somewhat

mechanical system of discipline and teaching was still occasionally to be met with. This is a survival from the days when the Government, by a system of individual examination and "payment by results," encouraged a certain narrowness of educational aim. The size of some of the classes has also prevented the spread of freer methods of teaching and discipline. This persistence of an older tradition, however, by no means implies any lack of goodwill or strenuous work on the part of the teachers. But, where it obtains, its influence is unfortunate in giving the children a distaste for school, and thus making them both less willing to come back for evening work and less able to adapt themselves to the freer methods necessarily employed in the Continuation Courses. Every year, however, witnesses the growth of more sympathetic and unconstrained relations between the teacher and the taught, and the increasing prevalence of such relations in the Day School, facilitated as we may hope they will be, by a more stimulating curriculum, is one of the surest grounds for hopefulness in regard to the future of the Technical Evening Schools.

HALIFAX.

Our survey of the history and present conditions of the Evening Schools in Manchester and Leeds has shown us some of the main problems confronting any Education Authority desirous of establishing a coherent system of evening instruction. There are in the first place the two closely related problems of adapting the students' work to their industrial or commercial needs, and of providing a properly organised system of instruction, which may facilitate the student's progress from one grade of instruction to another. These problems have been to some extent solved by the substitution of carefully considered courses of instruction for isolated subjects, and by so arranging

the curricula of a number of branch schools that they shall provide the requisite preparatory training for the work of certain central institutions. In the second place there are the subsidiary but most important problems connected with the number and class of students who can be induced to join the Evening Classes; the age at which attendance begins; the previous training in the Day School; the effect of their employment in causing fatigue or inability to attend; the supply of suitable and zealous teachers; the attitude of the employers; and the danger of an illiberal atmosphere in the schools. One or two other questions will be noticed in the sequel, but the above list is both formidable in itself and sufficient for our present purpose. In the following pages I shall try to show how the solution of some of these problems has been attempted in boroughs with a population of roughly 100,000, and in which, therefore, the conditions are less complex than those obtaining in Manchester or Leeds. The general principles of organisation are everywhere the same, though in each case they are modified by local peculiarities.

Of these smaller boroughs Halifax is a good example, in spite of the fact that its special conditions are not wholly favourable. Its population of about 108,000 is unevenly distributed over an unusually large area, and its industries are very varied, including several different branches of the textile and engineering trades, dyeing and building, in addition to the usual commercial occupations. Both these circumstances render organisation difficult. Further, the half-time system is very prevalent, nearly 9 per cent. of the children on the Elementary School books being excused from full attendance. It is, therefore, all the more remarkable that Halifax is noted for its large number of Evening Students, and for its success in securing their attendance immediately after they have left the Day Schools.

As might be anticipated, this result is due partly to the existence of a strong Evening School tradition and partly to an excellent system of administration. I also attribute great importance to the high standard of teaching in many of the Day Schools. The size of the classes is less than in many towns; in 1905-6 there was an average of one teacher to every thirty children in Provided and to every thirty-three children in Voluntary Schools; and though some of the Evening Teachers complained to me of the insufficient preparation of their students, it seems probable that an interest in learning is fostered in many children by the kindly personal relations subsisting in most cases between the Day School teachers and their scholars.

The beginning of the Evening School movement in Halifax was due to the efforts of a voluntary committee which, in 1886, conducted evening classes in four elementary schools. The work went on with increasing success until 1901, when these schools were taken over by the Technical Instruction Committee. There were then eleven Evening Schools attended by 1354 boys and 692 girls.

The Technical Instruction Committee had already assumed control of the Technical School, which had also originated in private effort. Hence when the Education Committee came into office, the field was prepared for a comprehensive scheme of co-ordination. In the session 1902-3 such a scheme was put into operation, and, with some natural developments, has since continued in force.

At the present time there are three stages of instruction. The first stage consists of a two years' Preparatory Course in Elementary Subjects; to the second stage belong the Special Courses, also of two years' duration for Industrial, Commercial, Art, or Domestic students; and to the third stage the courses at the Technical College.

The Elementary Course is taken at thirteen Evening

Continuation Schools for boys and girls, and the work done is roughly equivalent to that of the Sixth and Seventh Standards of the day school in Writing, Grammar, Arithmetic, Geography, History and Drawing. There are also optional classes in Woodwork and Metalwork.

Of these thirteen schools eight provide first-year instruction in the Special Courses, and five second-year instruction also. There is thus a pyramid of schools, the thirteen Continuation Schools forming the base, and the Technical College the apex.

The subjects taken in the Industrial Course are Experimental Mathematics, Technical Drawing and Experimental Science. In the Commercial Course are included Book-keeping, Business Methods, Shorthand, French and Commercial Arithmetic. In the Women's Departments various domestic subjects are taught; a course is arranged but is not compulsory. The Industrial Second Year Course continues the work of the First Year, but instead of Machine Drawing students in the Building Trade are given lessons in Building Construction. The Science takes the form of Practical Mechanics. The Second Year of the other Courses continues the work already begun. After the second year of these Courses students proceed to the Technical College where a large number of specialised courses are arranged. Students who have passed through one of these Second Year Courses at an Evening School are admitted to a Course at the Technical College for one session at half the ordinary fee. That this system of co-ordination is a reality is shown by the fact that 119 students who were in the Evening Schools last session are now in attendance at the Technical College.

One of the most interesting points of organisation at Halifax is the method by which boys and girls leaving

the Day Schools are induced to join the Evening Classes. In the first place, the names of all who leave are sent to the Central Office at the Technical College. A circular signed by the Principal of the College, Mr. J. Crowther, is then sent to them, inviting them to begin attendance as soon as possible at the nearest Evening School, and, more important still, they are visited either by the Head Teacher of the Evening School or by a Clerk from the Office. It is desirable that these visits should thus be of a friendly and semi-official character. Owing to the associations attached to his position, a visit from the Attendance Officer, however tactful, would, for this purpose, naturally be much less effective. By this means all needful information is given and a certain amount of personal influence brought to bear. If a boy does not come after being asked the first time, he is called upon again and not allowed to rest until all efforts are obviously in vain. The Head Masters of the Evening Schools are often tireless in their efforts to save boys from spending their evenings in the streets.

Regularity of attendance is encouraged by a system of Medals and of Money and Book Prizes. Further, whenever a student is absent from an Evening School the Head Teacher has to report such absence to the Office, at the same time giving the reason. This means that all absentees are enquired after and perhaps visited by the teacher, and in bad cases also communicated with from the Office. *

This system throws a large amount of work upon Principal Crowther and his staff as well as upon the teachers concerned, but it has been abundantly justified by its results.

The following statistics will give an accurate idea of these results so far as they depend upon the numbers

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in attendance. They have been kindly supplied by Mr. Crowther and are unusually complete. It is particularly instructive to be able to follow accurately the progress of the Evening Schools, so far as numbers are concerned, during their period of re-organisation

A.

NO. OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN EVENING SCHOOLS SINCE 1900.

Session.		Boys.		Girls.		Totals.		Average No. of hours' instruction received by each pupil enrolled during the Session.
1900-1	1,354	692	2,046 ¹	66
1901-2	1,342	687	2,029	—
1902-3	1,173	722	1,895 ²	—
1903-4	1,435	838	2,273 ³	—
1904-5	1,395	835	2,230 ⁴	—
1905-6	1,430	897	2,327 ⁵	123
1906-7	1,416	1,062	2,478 ⁶	—

1. Session 20 weeks only.

2. Introduction of Systematic Courses, which affected the boys to the extent of 169. The following Session, however, this loss was more than compensated for.

3. Full Commercial Course compulsory.

4. Full Commercial and Industrial Courses compulsory.

5. Introduction of Elementary Science into the Industrial Courses. Session increased to 25 weeks.

6. Second Year Commercial, Industrial and Art Courses begun. Session 30 weeks.

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ATTENDANCE OF STUDENTS AT THE EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

Boys (only).

Session.	Preparatory Course. 1st Year.			Preparatory Course. 2nd Year.			Commercial, Art. & Industrial. 1st Year (courses).			Commercial, Art. & Industrial. 2nd Year (courses).			Totals.		
	No. present. 1st week.	No. present. last week.	Total En- rolled.	No. present. 1st week.	No. present. last week.	Total En- rolled.	No. present. 1st week.	No. present. last week.	Total En- rolled.	No. present. 1st week.	No. present. last week.	Total En- rolled.	No. present. 1st week.	No. present. last week.	Total En- rolled.
1904-5	406	310	452	407	320	436	367	292	384	99	79	123	1,279	1,001	1,395
1905-6	409	329	447	355	283	404	418	365	448	127	95	131	1,309	1,072	1,430
1906-7	397	301	440	375	273	396	405	337	427	146	123	153	1,323	1,034	1,416

GIRLS.

Session.	No. present 1st week.	No. present last week.	Total En- rollment.	Session.	Totals.	Boys & Girls.
1904-5	795	551	835	1904-5	2,074	1,552 2,230
1905-6	665	576	897	1905-6	1,974	1,648 2,327
1906-7	939	873	1,062	1906-7	2,262	1,907 2,478

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D.

NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS ENTERING THE EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS DIRECT FROM THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Session.		Boys.		Girls.		Totals.
1904-5	367	118	485
1905-6	358	199	557
1906-7	374	269	564

As the age of admission to the Evening Classes of the Technical College is now 16 years no pupils proceed direct from the Elementary Day Schools to the evening classes of the College.

In the year 1906 the number of children who left the Elementary Schools was 1,105. Hence we may infer that about 58 per cent. of such children now join the Evening Continuation Schools within a year of their ceasing to attend the Day School. The Evening School statistics refer to sessions, and the Day School statistics to calendar years, and hence no exact computation of the percentage is possible.

E.

NUMBER OF BOYS AND GIRLS FROM THE PREPARATORY COURSES TAKING AMBULANCE, WOODWORK, METALWORK, AND PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

	Session 1904-5.	Session 1905-6.	Session 1906-7.
Ambulance (Boys)...	272	115	131
„ (Girls) ...	229	278	230
Woodwork ...	195	287	273
Metalwork ...	43	99	101
Physical Exercises * (Boys) ...	300	222	307½

* Prior to the Session 1906-7 the Physical Exercises were taken for half-an-hour on one evening. This arrangement interfered with the ordinary work considerably; it was therefore decided for the Session 1906-7 to make arrangements for the students to have Physical Exercises on a fourth night. This year's experience has led to the conclusion that the demand for serious physical exercises is very small and the Committee have therefore decided to drop this work next Session. At the same time they are making an increased grant to the local gymnasium on condition that facilities are there given to any evening pupils wishing to receive instruction in physical exercises.

§ Number present last week of Session 56.

ST. HELENS.

In St. Helens the educational conditions are in some respects unusual. The town is a County Borough and contains about 92,500 inhabitants, but has never had a School Board. Until the appointment of the Municipal Education Committee under the Education Act of 1902 the evening instruction was under the control of voluntary managers. Including the schools maintained by the Co-operative Society seventeen Evening Continuation Schools were opened and met with considerable success, in 1898 a total attendance of 1,562 being obtained. The work done, however, was not altogether satisfactory, it was too unsystematic, was unconnected with the classes at the Gamble Technical Institute, and failed to attract students of the unskilled labour class.

After 1898 the attendance at the Evening Classes declined, until in 1905-6 there were only 931 students on the registers and an average attendance of 586.

That session, however, was marked by the introduction of important reforms by the Education Committee. The number of Evening Schools maintained by the Committee was reduced from fifteen to six, five of which were connected with Voluntary Schools and theoretically carried on under the supervision of their managers. All new students were required to attend on three evenings in the week, one of which was set apart for homework, and definite courses were introduced. The first three years' work was to be taken at the evening continuation schools, the fourth and following years at the Gamble Institute.

During the past session (1906-7) teaching has been given in the evening schools under the Education Committee on three evenings per week, and the system of courses has

been further developed. The whole of the evening classes both in the continuation schools and the Gamble Institute are now, with few exceptions, organised in courses, and every student is compelled to take one of the courses thus prescribed. No student is allowed to proceed from one stage of a course to the next unless he has passed the sessional examination. In order to encourage attendance at these Evening Classes a comprehensive scheme of scholarships has been adopted. There are scholarships connecting the Day Schools with the Evening Continuation Schools by which all boys and girls leaving the Day Schools can attend one session at the Evening Continuation School free, provided they join the Evening School in the session after they have left the Day School. The number of these scholarships is unlimited. The Head Teachers of the Elementary Schools supply the Secretary with a list of the children who have left the Day Schools during the previous year, and a letter is written to each one pointing out the advantages of joining an Evening Continuation School without delay, and offering a scholarship. Approximately 1,300 such scholarships were offered at the beginning of the session 1906-7, of which 420 were taken up.

There are also scholarships connecting the Evening Continuation Schools with the Evening Classes at the Gamble Institute in the form of free tuition for one year, and in the Evening Technical School at this Institute there are Internal Scholarships by which it is possible to proceed to the highest classes without payment of any fees.

Lastly, the committee assist certain students who have completed the courses at the Gamble Institute to attend classes at the Liverpool University by paying their travelling expenses.

In addition to these scholarships the fees are returned to students in the Evening Continuation Schools who have

attended with regularity, and prizes are awarded for good progress.

By a somewhat questionable provision scholars still in attendance at the Day Schools are admitted to the Evening Continuation Schools. The number of such scholars in 1906-7 was 183.

These measures under the energetic administration of Mr. J. J. Bromhead, the Secretary for Higher Education, have met with a large measure of success. The standard of work has been raised, and the numbers in attendance have increased.

The following tables refer to the session 1906-7 :

	No. on books.	No. in attendance in Nov.	No. in attendance in March.	Average attendance.
Evening Cont. Schools	994	613	375	431
Gamble Institute	1,001	957	798	—

The average number of students attending the Technical School on any one evening is about 300.

In the School of Art each individual student takes on the average between four and five subjects. In the Technical School, allowing for students taking Cookery, Laundry, Millinery, and Dressmaking who generally take only one subject, each student takes between three and four subjects.

The number of students arranged according to ages is as follows :

Evening Continuation Schools under the Committee :

	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	Over 17	Total
Boys	44	106	209	95	38	121	603
Girls	38	73	128	62	20	73	391
Gamble Institute :							
Men	—	—	20	67	76	380	543
Women ..	—	—	15	24	25	394	458

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The number of students from the Evening Continuation Schools who proceed to the Gamble Institute is about ninety per annum.

The Courses at the Evening Continuation Schools comprise a First Year Preliminary Course for boys and girls who left school in the sixth or a lower standard, and Industrial, Commercial and Domestic Courses. These latter Courses are continued at the Gamble Institute.

Besides these Courses at the Evening Continuation Schools there is also a Preliminary Course at the Gamble Institute which all its students, except those in Art or Domestic Subjects, are required to take, unless they can give evidence of a sound general education.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of the work is the great attention devoted to the teaching of English. The aim is to enable the student to read with appreciation and express himself with lucidity. Both reading aloud and silent reading are sedulously practised, the favourite authors being Shakespeare and Dickens. Great interest is taken in the lesson, and really good poetry is carefully studied and much appreciated. One Head Master gives monthly lectures on English authors, which have proved attractive. The students' compositions include essays on literary and current topics.

Many of the employers take a practical interest in the work of the Gamble Institute, but, as in many other towns, the industrial conditions are not altogether favourable to the efficiency of its evening schools. A large proportion of the male population is employed in glass works and collieries. Much of the labour is very heavy, while the three-shift system, which obtains in some of the works, makes attendance practically impossible for many of the boys and men.

Turning now to the school maintained by the Co-

operative Society, we have an instance of a Continuation School, which is successfully maintained by private effort. This Evening School is the largest in the town. In the session of 1905-6 the number of students on the books was 415, and in 1906-7 307. It is ostensibly confined to students of sixteen and upwards, but exceptions are not infrequent. The teaching is on similar lines to that given in the Committee's schools, but the school is open on two evenings only, and fewer subjects are taken. The reasons for the popularity of the school were stated by the Secretary of the Society to be: (1) the bright and airy rooms, with comfortable seats and tables; (2) the social side of the work (there are two social meetings in the year and a picnic in the summer); (3) the lighter course of study, though the subjects taught are treated very seriously; (4) the corporate feeling; 95 per cent. of the students belong to families connected with the Society. The weekly fee is only half that charged by the Education Committee.

The example of this school is instructive as showing the value of methods and influences somewhat different from those usually associated with the work of Education Committees.

BOOTLE.

Although the local conditions in the County Borough of Bootle differ considerably from those obtaining in St. Helens, the same general type of organisation has been adopted. There are three Evening Schools with Preparatory Courses in elementary subjects followed by Commercial, Industrial, and Domestic Courses extending over two years. The Courses lead up to the work of the Technical Evening School which is divided into a Commercial Section, an Engineering Section, a School of Domestic Economy, and a School of Art. The fees range

between 6s. and 22s. per session, and every student who has entered since 1904, with certain exceptions, is bound to take a course, though a number of alternative subjects are offered in each section.

The co-ordination of the Evening and Technical Schools has been facilitated by the formation of a Board of Studies consisting of the Secretary for Higher Education, the principal Masters of the Technical School, and the Head Masters of the Evening Schools. The system has not yet produced its full effect, but the results so far obtained are quite encouraging.

Since Bootle is, for industrial purposes, practically a part of Liverpool, it is unnecessary for its Education Committee to provide advanced special teaching.

Although the population of Bootle is estimated to be 69,200 there are only 2,350 in attendance at the Evening and Technical Schools. This not very satisfactory state of things is due partly to the lack of any organised plan for attracting students, such as that existing in Halifax, partly to special difficulties connected with the industries of Bootle. A large amount of labour is employed in connexion with the docks and shipping, and the men suffer much from irregularity of work and hours. There is also a considerable population, mostly Irish, near the docks, which is in a state of chronic poverty.

Again it is difficult to get boys to attend Evening Classes when they leave the Day School, owing to the great demand for boys of 14 to 16 to scrape boilers in the various engineering works. When thus employed they work hard and earn high wages, and so are both too tired and too proud to attend an Evening School. The case of the girls is not much better. Large numbers are employed in Bryant and May's Match Factory, and these seem to be totally disinclined for evening work. A similar lack of

interest in evening classes is shown by large numbers of girls who are kept at home to mind the house while their mothers are at work.¹ Of the girls employed in Johnson's Dye Works I shall speak below.

One of the means by which the Education Committee try to overcome this difficulty is by allowing the attendance at the Evening Schools of certain scholars from the Day School. Most of the teachers favour this arrangement, but I cannot consider it satisfactory. Certainly when I visited the classes most of the younger boys looked much more fit for bed than for mental work.

On the other hand, the Committee has been successful in obtaining a good deal of co-operation from the employers, though this has naturally been given mainly in connection with the Technical School. The Dock Board remits work before breakfast to boys who attend Evening Classes, and other firms allow their apprentices to begin work an hour later either on the same or the following day. One firm went so far as to make attendance compulsory upon its apprentices, but the result was not entirely satisfactory as the boys evidently attended with reluctance. Again, several firms, particularly in the building trade, pay the boys' fees, or repay half the fees to the parents if the boy attends well. Special mention is due to the efforts of the Messrs. Johnson. They tried sending all their boys to the Technical Evening School for instruction in Chemistry and similar subjects, but found that in four-fifths of the cases it was pure waste of time, owing to the lack of general education. They now hold at the Works special classes in dyeing which are taught by the Head Chemist, and include practical as well as theoretical instruction.

1. There is an unusually large demand in Bootle for the work of charwomen, due, no doubt, to the small number of domestic servants kept by most of the inhabitants.

Attendance at these is voluntary, but nearly all the boys and men go through the Course, and a large proportion are very keen. In addition to this, any boy who wishes to attend a Continuation School has his fees paid, and is let off work, however great the pressure of business, but this permission is taken advantage of by very few. Messrs. Johnson also employ about 600 girls, who are encouraged in every way to go to a Continuation School. In the case of a girl who has not passed the seventh standard attendance is compulsory; in other cases it is stimulated by the payment of fees, by prizes, and in particular by the personal supervision and interest of a Social Secretary, a lady, whose whole time is devoted to their welfare. It is her intention to hold classes in Swedish Drill, from which she anticipates good results.

The Secretary for Higher Education (Mr. J. J. Ogle) does much by his personal efforts to foster the interest taken in the schools by employers. He often writes on behalf of individual boys, whose attendance is interfered with by working overtime. In April, 1907, he arranged for a conference between the local employers and the Education Committee for the purpose of making the utility of the evening classes more widely known, and of receiving criticisms and suggestions.¹ The result has been the establishment of an Advisory Board of Employers to aid the Committee in the improvement of education on its practical side.

Another feature of interest is the part played by the Bootle Public Library, under its energetic Librarian Mr. C. H. Hunt, in the promotion of Evening and other Education. By a system of school lending libraries, by

1. See pp. 191—193.

lists of suitable books, by an educational museum, and by free lectures a great deal is done to stimulate independent reading.

WIDNES.

As an example of a town of about 30,000 inhabitants possessing a very complete system of Evening Schools, I shall take the non-county borough of Widnes, the home of many chemical odours, but also of a great deal of quiet educational activity.

Largely owing to the tactful and unremitting efforts of Mr. G. H. Danby, who has been for thirty years the Secretary to the School Board and the Education Committee, it has proved possible to interest parents, employers, and teachers in the problem of Evening Education. The result is that in spite of one or two serious difficulties a large proportion, probably over 80 per cent., of the boys leaving the schools in the borough at once begin attendance at the Evening Schools, and a system of combined day and evening attendance has been arranged.

In the years preceding 1902 the proportional attendance was even better, a very large percentage of the boys from the Elementary Schools proceeding to the Evening Schools as a matter of course. But when, by the Education Act of 1902, non-county boroughs were deprived of the right of controlling the finance of their Evening Schools, a blow was struck at the system from which it is only now recovering.

One of the main conditions of success was ensured when the chief employers, to a great extent influenced by the example of Messrs. Brunner, Mond & Co., of Northwich, agreed to make Evening School attendance compulsory upon their apprentices. At present the United

Alkali Company, who own the largest works in the district, make it a condition that all apprentices between fourteen and eighteen, whether bound by indenture or not, shall attend classes on three evenings in the week, their fees being paid by the Company. Apprentices over eighteen will then be allowed to compete for Scholarships entitling them to attend Day Technical Classes on two afternoons without loss of wages and at the Company's expense. The other manufacturers have followed this example. In the case of the shopkeepers the situation is not so favourable. They appear to be quite willing that their errand boys should go, but do not always succeed in releasing them in time. The better boys, however, will not stay at shops where their attendance is habitually prevented.

Another favourable circumstance is the unity of purpose prevailing among the teachers and educational authorities. All the Head Teachers have passed many years in the service of the town and devote themselves unreservedly to furthering the educational system, in the development of which they have borne a part, while the fact that Mr. Danby has always had the whole of the institutions under his control has tended to prevent any lack of co-ordination between the various types of school.

As an illustration of the intelligent interest taken in the children I may mention that a trained nurse is engaged by the committee, who visits each school once a week, and sees all sick and dirty children. The effect has been a very remarkable improvement in cleanliness and health, the nurse's salary being more than met by the resulting increase in the grants.

Another advantage which must not be underestimated, is that there are no half-timers, and that exemption is allowed to children under fourteen, only if they have passed the seventh standard.

Of the two special difficulties with which the Education Committee has to contend, the first is the impossibility in the Chemical Industry of excusing boys from work before breakfast. Hence young boys have to begin work at 6 a.m. and to attend classes up to nine or half-past nine at night, and are naturally often tired and sleepy.

The second difficulty seems to be the unwillingness of a considerable number of Roman Catholic boys to take kindly to Evening Schools. An Evening School was established for them during the session 1906-7, but was discontinued owing to the fall in numbers. In the two other Evening Schools the numbers rose from 142 in September, 1907, to 145 in February, 1907.

The Evening Schools for boys consist of three Continuation Schools, in which the courses serve as a foundation for the work at the Evening Technical School. The fees are 5s. and are remitted for one session to children who take an Evening Course in the next session after they have left the Day School. They are also returned under certain conditions to students making 85 per cent. of the possible attendances. The Head Masters of the Evening Schools are Chief Assistants in the Day Schools.

In these schools courses are compulsory, and may be either Industrial or Commercial. In both cases the First Year Course includes English, Arithmetic and History. The English syllabus is based on the study of some good example of English literature, *e.g.*, a play of Shakespeare, and the History is so arranged as to give an insight into the duties of present-day citizenship. Both subjects are taught in such a way as to encourage private reading, and have proved popular and stimulating. A teacher writes of the English lessons: "Interest on the whole was very well maintained, and it was a pleasure to give these hard-worked youths a glimpse into the old romance and the

absorbing Shakespeare world. Many of them had been at work from 6 a.m., two or three quietly dropped off to sleep where the 'Tales' proved less engrossing—but generally the work was worth doing, and had doubtless played its intended part in some slight humanising and education of character."

The Industrial Course further includes Drawing, and the Commercial Course Geography, Shorthand and Type-writing. The Second and Third Year Industrial Courses consist of English and Experimental Mathematics. In the later years of the Commercial Course the subjects are those of the First Year with the addition of Book-keeping and a foreign language.

Boys who have passed the Seventh Standard normally omit the first two years of these Evening School Courses.

The percentage of attendance in these schools from September to February of the Session 1906-7 was rather over 82.

In the Technical School, Courses are provided for boys engaged in Commerce, the Chemical Industry, Engineering and the Building Trades. There is also a three years' Course in Art. The percentage of attendances was about 80, but students come on two evenings only.

The system of compulsory attendance appears to work quite satisfactorily. A few boys cannot, or will not, make much progress, but they are the exceptions. On the other hand, the able boys rapidly come to the front not only in school, but in the works, and are prepared for positions of responsibility.

Owing to the absence of any demand for female labour the large majority of the girls go into service as soon as they leave school or can be spared from home. Hence the number attending Evening Schools is small. Rather over thirty attend a Course in Cookery, Home Nursing, and Laundry Work.

CONCLUSIONS.

Any practical conclusions which can be drawn from the conditions dealt with in this chapter must obviously be provisional only, but I may perhaps briefly call attention to some points which seem to me important.

Evening Continuation Schools have very great possibilities of usefulness before them, but these possibilities will be fully realised only if Evening Schools are recognised as an integral element in our social system. At present they are too often regarded as a superfluous excrescence. It is supposed that attendance at an Evening School makes no difference to a boy's or teacher's capacity for work during the day, and conversely that he can exert himself at night whether he has had a full day's work or not. Day and evening must be brought into relation with each other. If a boy goes to an Evening School he cannot begin work at six o'clock the next morning; if a master has been teaching really hard all day, his evening work is bound to suffer. In the same way the hours of a student's daily employment and of his evening studies must be so adjusted that neither shall encroach upon the other. It is almost useless for a boy to join an evening class if he is frequently kept so late by his employer as to be unable to attend.

This co-ordination of Evening Schools with the boy's daily work is possible only with the consent of the employers. It is to be hoped that greater efforts will be made by Education Committees to secure this co-operation. In some towns this has already been accomplished, and I am convinced that the need of the moment is an enlightened propaganda rather than any form of legal compulsion. On the other hand, when once a vigorous interest has been awakened, it is very possible that some legal restriction of the hours of juvenile labour up to

seventeen or eighteen will prove necessary for the equalisation of opportunity.

Hardly less important is the relation between the Day and Evening Schools. Intelligent teaching and pleasant personal relations in the Day School are essential, if the Evening School is to find a reasonable number of students willing to attend. Moreover, the teachers of the Day School can do more than anyone else to induce their scholars to join the Evening Classes at an early age. Further, the curriculum and teaching methods of the Day School have a most important bearing upon Continuation Work. The teaching in the Evening Schools can never be satisfactory until the reform of the Day School has been carried out.

Further an arrangement is much to be desired by which Bands of Hope, and the host of similar societies, should meet on other nights than those appropriated by the Evening Schools. It is to be regretted that the various religious bodies and the Education Committees should conflict with one another in their efforts to attain a common end. There is sometimes a danger that an Education Committee should undervalue the work done by organisations other than its own. Speaking generally the official Evening Continuation Schools are not the best instrument for reaching boys and girls from the lowest social strata. It is here that Clubs of different types prove so effective. Moreover the various churches have a function in relation to young people which should be freely recognised by the Education Authorities.

The main instrument of the Evening School is necessarily technical instruction. This instruction cannot be too closely related to the student's daily work. Several competent observers deplored to me the tendency to make the teaching too ambitious, either owing to a mistaken respect for examination results or from the natural desire to accelerate the student's progress. The least pretentious

teaching is often the most useful, and a careful consideration of the student's practical needs by no means prevents the education given from being truly liberal. If the boy learns to appreciate the wider aspects and interests of his work, he becomes not only a better workman but a more cultured man. The low, I should almost say mercenary, ideal of many Evening Schools is fatal to their real efficiency.

It can hardly be too strongly urged that the atmosphere and methods of the Evening School should not be those at present characteristic of the Day School. The Continuation School must be akin rather to the higher Technical Evening School than to the Elementary School in whose buildings it may be held. The development of the social side of Evening School is a wide and promising field in which comparatively little has yet been done.

The Course system has undoubtedly proved a great success, but it is an open question whether in some cases two evenings a week, with a certain amount of homework, are not as much as should be demanded. In the case of adults a large amount of freedom should clearly be allowed. The case of girls not engaged in business has also proved a difficult one. Speaking generally the whole problem of evening instruction for girls is still far from its solution. The danger of over-pressure is very real.

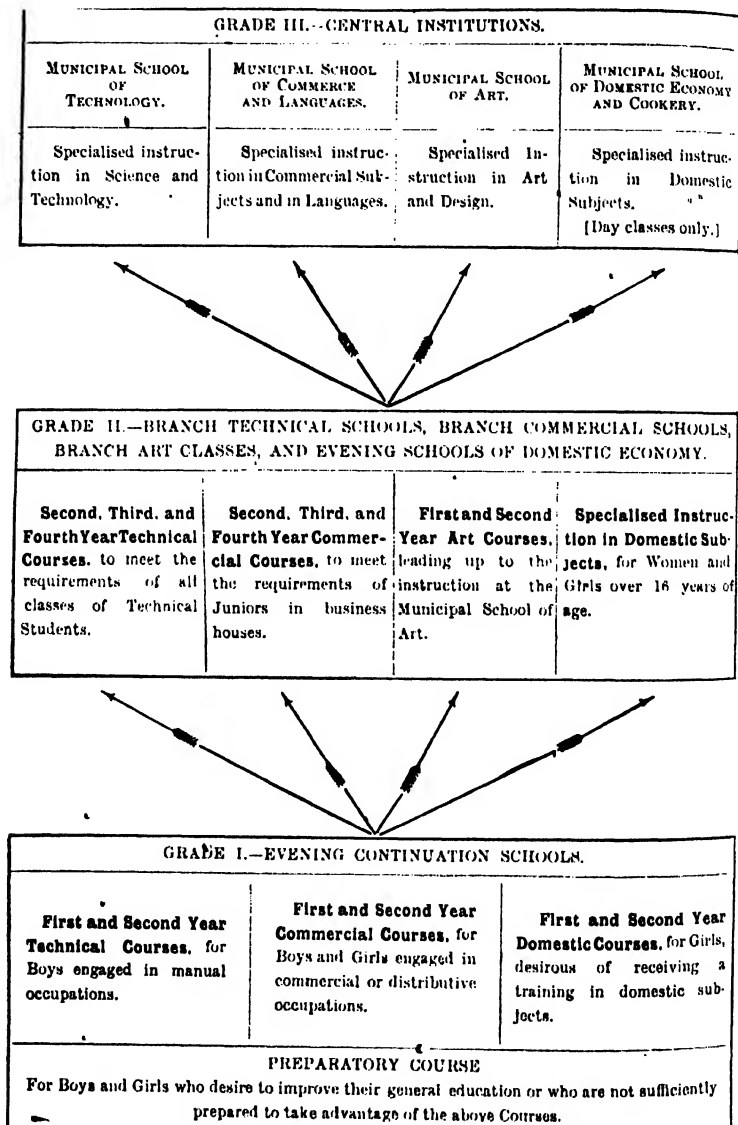
Lastly, it is a patent fact that the personality of the teacher is all-important. If the teacher takes a personal interest in the students, and is able to foster the spirit of earnest industry which the majority of his students rarely lack, the class will be successful, however small the numbers. The best schools depend little upon free admissions, prizes or the return of fees. Scholarships are needful, and inability to pay the fees ought never to be a bar to admission, but if the students feel that they are deriving benefit from the instruction, they will not need pecuniary inducements to attend.

II. BOMPAS SMITH.

190 EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

APPENDIX I.

DIAGRAM (prepared by Mr. J. H. Reynolds) illustrating the Graded System of Courses of Instruction adapted to the requirements of the different Classes of Students in the Manchester Evening Schools.



APPENDIX II.

At a meeting referred to on p. 182 the following paper was read by Mr. D. B. Hewitt, Esq., B.A., T.C.D., a member of the Education Committee of the Cheshire County Council, a Director of Messrs. Brunner, Mond and Co., Northwich.

"The firm began to encourage attendance at evening classes twenty-three years ago, at first by voluntary attendance, but after a few years made it compulsory and offered prizes to their employees who made at least 75 per cent. of possible attendances in one session. When this rule was made there was trouble in the class-rooms resulting from this pressure; some of the unwilling ones threw things about to the subversion of discipline. This was stopped by summoning a meeting of the parents of the youths, who were told that the firm intended to employ no boy in future who did not regularly attend the evening school at Winnington or other place, and they were recommended to inform their sons that the matter was no joke, for the firm had determined to have the new regulation properly carried out. From that time forward no difficulty of that kind had occurred, and it is now a very popular arrangement both with pupils and parents.

"In 1904 an advance was made by altering the rule as to employment to read as follows: 'It is a further condition of employment that all youths, not apprentices, under the age of 19, or who reach the age of 19 during the Session, shall attend the Evening School at least 9 times out of every 10 that the School is open, and that apprentices shall so attend during the whole period of their apprenticeship.'

"Since 1905 apprentices who had a good record of three years evening school attendance at the Winnington Park Schools or other similar evening classes have been given

instruction in the afternoons two days a week in the Verdin Technical School without any deduction from their wages. There are now 24 apprentices in the first year's and 19 in the second year's course. This attendance forms part of the week's work of the apprentices. The attention of apprentices to their work is remarkable. From 90 to 100 per cent. is the record of their attendance at the School and absences are almost all accounted for by sickness.

The effect of the example of Messrs. Brunner, Mond & Co. on persons other than their employees has been markedly good, so that at the present time, of the pupils in the Evening School at Winnington, only one half are in the service of the firm. The Board of Education grants with the fees for attendance at the Evening Schools for years covered the expense of maintenance, and when the Act of 1902 came into force there was a balance in hand of nearly £200, which is being used to provide any extra expense in the future.

In 1903 the firm of Brunner, Mond & Co., whose the School was, handed it over to Trustees for carrying on the work, and the Evening School now costs the town about 30s. a year.

This system was not commenced by Sir John T. Brunner as a work of philanthropy but as a matter of business, and it must be judged by its effect on the efficiency of the workpeople.

Here is an extract from the Works Manager's Report in answer to enquiry:-

"Up to the present we have gained in two things—

"1st. Better understanding of a mechanical drawing;

"2nd. Greater ability in setting out work.

"As regards No. 1, up to a few years ago very few mechanics understood a drawing and still fewer could make a hand sketch to illustrate an idea. Many of our lads now show great ability in hand sketching with

" chalk or pencil and can be employed in measuring up
 " for alterations and repairs, placing their measurements
 " in an understandable form on paper. They all can
 " grasp the meaning of an engineering drawing.

" As regards No. 2, amongst the fitters, boilermakers,
 " and smiths we have certainly felt the improvement in
 " a marked manner. To give an instance. Take a repair
 " to a connecting rod end, the smith shows markedly
 " greater ability in making correct allowances for fitting
 " shop work, and when the rough forging comes to the
 " machine tool, the fitter can mark it off to a drawing
 " or gauge and set up in the machine almost without
 " assistance. It used to be the most difficult of all
 " things to teach an apprentice to set up his work, but
 " now in many cases it comes to him naturally.

" Amongst the young men who are now in the works,
 " and who only attended the Evening School classes,
 " I have some exceedingly clever men, *and men who take*
 " *an interest in the work for the work's sake.*

" I consider that our younger generation of mechanics
 " show a very marked improvement both in ability and
 " keenness for work and it is a pleasure to deal with
 " many of them on account of the interest they display."

NOTES ON THE EVENING SCHOOLS OF ROCHDALE.

Special pains have been taken at Rochdale [population 83,112 in 1901. Trades: Cotton and Woollen Manufacture and Engineering] to encourage attendance at the Evening Schools, which are so arranged as to form a link between the Elementary Day Schools and the Technical School. The Evening Courses of Instruction are arranged in three grades and three sections: (1) Commercial; (2) Industrial; and (3) Domestic. The Elementary Industrial Course prepares for a more advanced course, called the "First Year's Technical Course," and for Trade Classes which are held in the Central and Technical Schools. The Elemen-

tary Commercial Course is followed by Intermediate and Advanced Courses held in the Central School. The Secretary of the Education Committee (Mr. J. E. Holden) sends a copy of the following circular to every boy and girl leaving the Public Elementary School :

COUNTY BOROUGH OF ROCHDALE.

EDUCATION COMMITTEE.

The Members of the above Committee very earnestly invite you, and all the Scholars who have recently left the Day School, to attend an Evening School during the Session commencing Monday, September —, 19—.

Your education only begins in the Day School. To be really valuable it must still be continued for several years.

Your future position depends almost entirely upon it and upon the use you make of the next few years of your life.

Education courses, which begin in the Evening Schools and end in the Technical School have been arranged, and these courses aim at preparing students for positions in both Workshops and Offices.

One of these courses will suit you, but it is essential that you should begin at once, before the knowledge gained in the Day School is lost. A few years' delay means that you may spend part of your manhood re-doing the work of your childhood.

The accompanying prospectus supplies you with particulars of the Schools, the Teachers, and the Subjects taught, and any further information will readily be supplied either at the Evening Schools or at this Office.

The Fee must be paid in advance, either in one payment or by such weekly instalments as you may privately arrange with the Head Teacher.

Scholarships and Prizes are offered for competition and the Students of all Schools are eligible to compete; by their means an efficient Student should be able to secure a good education free of cost.

J. E. HOLDEN,

Secretary of the Committee.

Education Office, Baillie Street,
September, 19—.

Another circular is sent to the Superintendents of Sunday Schools which in Rochdale, as elsewhere in Lancashire, play an important part in the educational life of the town. It is pointed out how important it is that young people who are free from day-school attendance and new to industrial life should be well employed in the evening. Sunday Schools retain most of these young people long after their names have been removed from the day school registers. The Education Committee therefore invite the

co-operation of the Sunday School authorities in securing a good attendance at the Evening Schools.

A prospectus of the Evening School arrangements for the ensuing winter is sent in September to everyone who attended an Evening School during the previous session. Accompanying the prospectus is a circular letter signed by the Secretary of the Education Committee, which expresses the hope that the student will resume attendance at the Evening School or at some of the classes held in connection with the Technical School or School of Art.

Certificates admitting to combined Evening Classes are given by the Head Master to capable boys on leaving the Day School. The rule is that no class will be continued unless at least twenty scholars (in the case of Dressmaking fifteen) enter during the first four weeks of the session, but the Committee frequently allow small classes to continue if good work is being done.

The careful steps thus taken by the Education Committee, together with the cordial efforts of the Elementary School teachers in the town, have produced a remarkable improvement in the attendance at Evening classes. The number of persons in Rochdale under 17 years of age who have left the Day School is 3,600, boys and girls being about equally divided. During the years 1905, 1906 and 1907, the percentage of these persons under 17 who were in attendance at an Evening School was 55 per cent. in the case of boys, and 25 per cent. in the case of girls. Previous to the Session 1904-5, the percentages were—boys 40 per cent., girls 20 per cent.

In Rochdale few scholars stay in the public Elementary Day Schools after their thirteenth birthday. In March, 1907, there were 872 half-timers, or nearly 300 more than in 1904. This rapid increase in the number of half-timers is due to the recent extraordinary prosperity of the cotton trade.

The Courses in the Evening Schools are held on three nights a week, two hours each night. The session of the ordinary Evening Schools is 25 weeks; that of the higher Evening Classes, 32 weeks. The time at which the greatest fall takes place in the attendance at Evening Classes is the beginning of February. Recently there has not been as great a fall in the attendance about Christmas as was formerly the case. By the end of February (during which month weak students who are not up to the examination-standard drop off) about one-third of those who joined the Evening Classes in the preceding September have left.

An important influence is exerted in the town of the Rochdale Education Guild, which is a branch of the Workers' Educational Association. It was founded in 1904 and is a federation of 74 societies, of which some 30 are Trade Union branches. Its object is to assist in promoting higher education among the people of Rochdale and district. The Guild consists of over 300 members. It publishes an Educational Calendar showing all the educational fixtures in the town. It acts as a sort of "educational clearing house" for the district, and seeks to prevent overlapping and wastage of educational force and opportunity. At every stage of its work, the Guild has been assisted by the co-operation of the Borough Education Committee. Two Courses of Oxford University Extension Lectures, one of Shakespeare's Historical Plays, and the other on Political and Social Problems, were arranged, and through the influence of the Guild the number of working men in attendance was larger than in any previous session. On the recommendation of the Guild, the Rochdale Education Committee held classes in connexion with the extension lectures, and pioneer courses of lectures were delivered by members of the Guild in neighbouring townships. The Guild arranged a conference of Sunday School officials,

as a result of which four lectures, expressly designed for Sunday School workers, were given, under the auspices of the Manchester University Extension Committee, by an experienced schoolmaster, on "The Principles and Practice of Teaching and School Management." Visits were paid to the Brontë country at and around Haworth and to the Ancoats Art Museum in Manchester. The Summer work of the Guild included the arrangement of lectures to mothers on the care of home and children given by the Lady Health Visitors of the Corporation, and a largely attended Reading and Discussion Class which prepared the student for the Winter's lectures. Three scholarships, tenable at the Oxford Summer Meeting of University Extension Students, are available for Guild members. Thus the Guild renders valuable service to the town and district in three ways. It stimulates interest in higher education, and especially among working people. It secures closer co-operation between the different bodies which arrange lectures and classes, and serves as a useful ally to the Borough Education Committee. Finally, it helps in supplying those courses of instruction in literary, historical, and economic subjects which are needed in addition to technical classes in a well-balanced scheme of further education.

CHAPTER V.

Catholic Evening Schools and Clubs in Manchester and Evening Classes in the Manchester Lads' Clubs.

THE number of Catholic Evening Continuation Schools in Manchester is 15, comprising 25 separate departments. Some few of the schools date back to the early days of the evening school movement in Manchester and their development coincides with the rapid extension of the municipal evening schools with which Mr. Wyatt's name is connected. Before 1892, they led a rather struggling existence. The Government grant earned was not large enough to meet expenses, and initiative was constantly hampered by want of funds. In that year Canon Desplenter, acting with the consent and approval of the Bishop, arranged with the Manchester School Board that all the Catholic Evening Schools in Manchester should in future be under the jurisdiction of the Board, the latter undertaking the whole expense of the schools, so far as it was not met by Government grants, and the appointment of the teachers. In practice, the teachers continued to be those engaged in teaching in Catholic Schools in the day time. The schools now form part of the regular system of municipal Evening Continuation Schools under the jurisdiction of the Manchester Education Committee.

The Catholic Evening Continuation Schools are to be found, for the most part, in the poorest districts of the City. The largest and most successful of them all—St. Michael's—is situated in the heart of Ancoats. It is in districts like this that the good influence of the nuns is so

powerfully felt in the schools. Their devotion and their personal interest in the children are the prime causes of the success of the schools, especially those for girls. Those nuns who are in charge of the Catholic Day Schools, exert their influence on the girls who are leaving and persuade many of them to come to the Evening School. Some of the girls attend the latter for years. But, as, in other Evening Continuation Schools, the number of pupils in attendance gradually falls as the session proceeds, in spite of the 5s. and 3s. prizes which are given at the end of the session to those who make 95 per cent. and 80 per cent. respectively of the possible attendances. If half the number who enter persevere to the end of the course the result is considered good. This can hardly be a matter of surprise when one takes into account the monotony of the lives of these young people during their working hours and the many potent counter attractions in the cheap and tempting places of entertainment scattered over our City. Owing to the influence of the nuns, the girls attend in larger numbers and more regularly than the boys. The fact that the girls are allowed to bring their own sewing and fancy work is also a powerful inducement to attendance.

The entrance scholarships, giving free tuition for one session, which are offered by the Education Committee to all children who begin attendance at a Continuation School immediately on leaving the Day School, have been largely taken advantage of by Catholic children, but so far, the number returning for a second session's work seems to be disappointing. At the Night School attached to the Mission of the Holy Name, the percentage of boys who availed themselves of these free entrance scholarships during the session 1905-6 was 58·6, but of these only 18·3 per cent. returned to the school during the session 1906-7.

The causes of this falling off are several: not only inability to pay the fees, and indifference on the part of the employers, but the fact that a rule has been made by the Education Committee that students at an Evening School must enter for the whole of a specified course and may no longer take only the one subject which they particularly desire to study. This keeps away many who would take up any isolated subject such as woodwork, cookery, dressmaking, etc.

The pupils, on the whole, seem thoroughly interested and keen in their work. More perhaps might be done in the way of training the girls in tidiness and neatness of person. In a large singing class in Ancoats that was visited, the girls were allowed to keep on their hats and shawls and sat as they liked on the benches, on the floor or on the window ledges. But they sang remarkably well and certainly gave all attention to the teacher. The fancy work which some of the girls were doing was pretty and tasteful. But it seemed somewhat incongruous to find a girl of about 20 working an elaborate lace collar for Whitsuntide while wearing a very ragged bodice with two pins down the front doing duty for much-needed buttons! In some schools, material for sewing is provided, and the girls bring so much a week until the work is paid for.

These Catholic Evening Schools are a distinct element of good in Manchester civic life. They serve the double purpose of keeping growing boys and girls at a difficult age off the streets and of deepening and extending the knowledge which the children have acquired at the Day School. But beyond all this they have a social and spiritual side. The teachers are here able to inculcate an ideal of life in a way impossible by other means. By their influence they can induce the boys and girls to join some religious guild in connexion with the Church; the children attend a

Sunday Mass and have a weekly meeting in connexion with the Sunday School.¹ The older boys may belong to the St. Vincent de Paul Society, a society of laymen who work amongst the sick and minister to the social and religious needs of their poorer brethren.

In some parishes there exist, in connexion with the Church, Boys' Clubs founded for recreation purposes only. The boys have a room where they can play billiards and other games and can have music. In connexion with the Boys' Club attached to Corpus Christi Priory, which is under the direction of the Norbertine Fathers, there are both a cricket and a football club and also a very good drum and fife band and a brass band. The elder boys—often members of the St. Vincent de Paul Society—take an active part in the management of the club and it is very pleasant to see their earnestness and the care which the majority evince in their dress, as soon as they attain to a position of responsibility.

In connexion with the Mission of the Holy Name, there is a most successful Boys' Brigade, with 200 boys on the books, of whom 180 are in uniform. Observance of religious duties and attendance at evening classes are made conditions of membership. If a boy does not attend Mass on Sunday, and has no reasonable excuse to offer, he may not enter the Club room or the Gymnasium for a week. The boys have two drills a week as well as practice for the brass and bugle bands connected with the Brigade. The members are well looked after and are helped to improve their position and to get good situations. At Whitsuntide they go into camp. Towards the expenses of this holiday

1. There is not much scope for real instruction in the Sunday Schools as at present organised. As in the teaching of secular subjects, trained teachers and graded classes are essential. But in the Sunday School time is short, the scholars are many and the skilled and trained teachers but few. Less is therefore accomplished than would be the case were conditions more favourable.

they are supposed to contribute 3d. a week each throughout the year, but the poorest amongst them, if they are deserving, are not excluded, even if they can pay nothing. The money is found for them. There is also, in connexion with the same mission, a Guild of St. Aloysius which meets on Saturday night and Sunday afternoon. This is largely composed of old Brigade boys, but not exclusively so. It is a purely religious club and is managed by some of the Catholic laymen of the parish. Much good is done by these means. The Brigade boys, when they reach the age of eighteen, are drafted off into the Men's Club, and thus are kept under strong religious influence at the most critical period of their lives.

The best-known Catholic recreative club for girls is that in connexion with the Home of the Sisters of Charity—in Ancoats. Here about 150 of the poorest girls meet on Saturday nights under the care of the Sisters and do fancy work, play games, etc.

The number of pupils in the Catholic Evening Continuation Schools is still small in comparison with the number of those who ought to take advantage of the instruction offered. The numbers are creeping up surely though slowly, but undoubtedly much must be done in the near future to make evening continuation schools more attractive to the masses.

It is greatly to be hoped that Education Authorities will continue to do all in their power to encourage those denominational evening schools, the result of whose work is so far reaching and productive of good to the whole community.

CAROLINE COIGNOU.

EVENING CLASSES IN THE MANCHESTER LADS' CLUBS.

The founders of the earliest Lads' Clubs in Manchester, more than fifteen years ago, would hardly have claimed for

their work any directly educational value. Their immediate purpose was to provide a counter attraction to the streets, and few, if any, of them realised the educational possibilities of the work which they were initiating. It is true that certain classes of a recreative character were started quite in the early days of the movement. When the first novelty had worn off, the difficulty of keeping hold of the lads who had been induced to enter the clubs was increasingly felt, and so classes were formed in subjects combining the minimum of intellectual or physical effort with the maximum of amusement, such as gymnastics, physical drill, bent iron-work, fret-work and the like.

These classes, except where skilled gymnastic instructors were engaged, were almost invariably taught by the club workers themselves or by their friends, and were frankly intended as additional attractions to the clubs. The step from these to the first purely educational classes marks the beginning of a fresh idea in the Lads' Club programme.

Within the clubs themselves, great developments had taken place and, in spite of the continual increase in the provision of public amusements and the general raising of the standard of living among the working classes, they had succeeded in retaining and deepening their hold upon the lads of the city. They had become the homes of very lively societies which not only provided for their members' winter evenings but organised their games and athletics, arranged their annual summer holiday and in a variety of ways, centred the lives of the members in the clubs to which they belonged.

With these developments there came naturally to the officers of the Lads' Clubs an increased sense of responsibility for the welfare of the members and a desire to make the club more than a mere place for amusement and recreation, and it is not surprising that the question of

improving the general education of the boys over whom they had now obtained so strong a hold, became for them a vital problem.

It is true that even twenty years or more ago there were in the city numerous continuation schools where useful work was doubtless done, but the lads attending them were altogether of a different stamp from those who provided the bulk of the membership of the Lads' Clubs. The average Lads' Club member,—a boy possessing no exceptional ability, but more than an ordinary amount of rough high spirits,—showed a strong and quite natural disinclination to attend a continuation school where his class mates would be smarter lads than himself, fresh from school, generally better dressed, and engaged in occupations which demanded a better all round knowledge than he himself ever seemed likely to possess.

In order to provide for such lads as this, and perhaps with an idea of ultimately "feeding" the continuation schools, the Lads' Club officers set out to provide elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic.

And so, even ten or more years ago, a visitor to several of the larger lads' clubs in Manchester would have found classes in the three R's and other elementary subjects, consisting of lads between the ages of thirteen and twenty, taught by men whose days at school or college were long since over but who, in their capacity as Lads' Club workers, seemed, at that time, the most natural teachers of the classes. Amusing stories are told of the severe shocks which the lads' confidence in the knowledge and skill of these amateur teachers sometimes sustained, and it was probably due to the lack of trained teaching power that these early classes did not achieve any very great success. Gradually it became apparent that if the work was to be done efficiently, paid teachers must be employed and it was not long before

the teaching staff consisted almost entirely of trained and experienced men drawn generally from the elementary schools of the district in which the Club was situated. In one or two cases, a session or two elapsed before the classes were brought beneath the control of the Board of Education, but generally, with the advent of the paid teacher, the purely voluntary evening classes gave place to an evening school recognised, inspected and aided by the Board of Education, but still remaining under the active management of the club officers. For the past five or six years these classes have continued to attract an increasingly large attendance and to earn a correspondingly larger government grant, and during the winter months of 1905-6, no less than 897 working class lads were attending one or more educational classes in the Lads' Clubs of the City, while the grants during the same period reached the respectable sum of £391. 11s. 6d.

Such, very briefly, is the history of the educational work in a Manchester Lads' Club. But it must not be supposed that by any means all the clubs have undertaken this work. From a variety of causes many of them have been either unable or unwilling to attempt it, while a not inconsiderable number of club officers hold the opinion that education, in the more restricted sense of the term, does not fall within the proper scope of a Lads' Club. These confine their energies to other work and try to induce their members to attend the municipal continuation schools.

This view appears however to be less widely held than formerly, and within the past few years two of the largest clubs in Manchester have established regular evening schools, and at the Salford Lads' Club--the most recent institution of this kind--educational classes have from the first been provided. It has already been remarked that the great majority of the lads in the Lads' Club evening schools

would not otherwise be attending any educational classes. Generally speaking, it may be said that the Municipal Schools provide excellent opportunities for lads who are willing to attend, while the schools at the Clubs cater for those who seem incapable of realising for themselves the importance of improving their education and who need the pressure and influence which the Club can bring to bear to induce them to make the attempt.

Practically all the Lads' Clubs provide an annual "camp" for their members, and now it is becoming increasingly the custom to make attendance at some educational class during the winter a condition (at any rate for junior members) of enjoying this privilege, there is no doubt that it forms the strongest possible inducement to attendance. This, however, is not the sole means whereby members are persuaded to spend a part of their spare time in improving themselves. The facts that the classes are on the club premises and form an important part of its programme, and that the managers of the school are already closely associated with the boys in the ordinary club work and thus appreciate and sympathise with their difficulties, all assist in securing a remarkably high percentage of attendance, while the lowness of the fees, which can usually be paid weekly, and the prospect of a rebate at the end of the session, appeal strongly to the members, who for the most part are drawn from the poorest parts of the city. A very important element in the success of the work is the small size of the classes, particularly in the more advanced subjects, such as shorthand; a degree of individual attention is thus possible which has more than once favourably impressed H.M. Inspectors.

The educational work in the Lads' Clubs is of necessity largely elementary, but the whole spirit of the work is essentially practical, and lads are encouraged to take the

classes that are most likely to help them in their daily work.

For obvious reasons technical instruction is impossible, even if desirable, in the majority of the clubs, but at the Openshaw Lads' Club, where more than half the members are apprentices in local engineering works, a very high degree of mechanical training can be obtained. It is to be deplored that the *desire* to improve their general knowledge is conspicuously lacking among the members. This is particularly noticeable among the older lads who remain most unwilling to devote any portion of their spare time to head-work even if it be offered to them in the most attractive forms.

It is however more with their younger members, between thirteen and eighteen years of age, that the work of these, as of many continuation schools, chiefly lies. If they are able to secure from these lads regular attendance and efficient discipline during those critical years, even if it be only for a few hours during the week, they are, it is contended, performing an exceedingly useful function.

This is not the place to discuss the elementary school system and its efficiency, but it may be remarked that much of the time of these Lads' Club continuation schools is occupied, not in continuing but in revising, and, too often, in re-teaching what is supposed to have been learnt at the day school. The great ignorance and incompetence frequently found among boys who have just left the day school are pathetic. To write a simple letter, to read a simple sentence, to add up a simple sum, this does not seem to be too much to expect from boys who may have spent seven or eight years at school, but it is frequently found to be beyond their powers.

An improvement in the output from the elementary schools would quickly bear fruit in the continuation schools.

One of the greatest difficulties in the way of the success of these continuation schools is the amount of overtime which lads are called upon to put in. In spite of Acts of Parliament limiting the hours of employment of young persons, this blot upon our industrial system still exists, and overtime work frequently prevents attendance at classes; while the late hours which are the rule during a considerable part of the year among errand boys, railway nippers and others, inflict a great and undue strain upon growing lads, rendering them incapable of benefiting as they might otherwise do from evening classes.

It would not be right to conclude that, even on the purely educational side, Lads' Club work is confined to the immediately practical. To build up character summarises the aim and ideal inspiring the workers, and though this, of course, includes the practical training which is necessary to fit lads for their daily occupation and to enable them to get on in the world, it involves much that is beyond. To induce lads' club members so to spend their time in the club that, when their days there are ended, they may be better citizens, possessing ideals and interests in life, and perhaps hobbies too, outside their everyday work, is the aim of all Lads' Club workers. But in attempting to accomplish this they do not venture to neglect the more distinctly educational work which forms so important a part of the process.

J. H. HELM.

CHAPTER VI.

The work of Continuation Schools in certain rural districts in England—Cambridgeshire, Gloucestershire, Northumberland, Cumberland, Buckinghamshire, and Yorkshire (East Riding).

THE task of organising evening schools and classes in rural districts is one of special difficulty. The following pages illustrate the manner in which the problem is now being grappled with by the local education authorities in six representative English counties, largely rural in character.

The Technological Branch of the Board of Education has devoted much attention to this question and has issued a useful memorandum on the subject, from which the following extract is taken.

"There are well recognised difficulties to be overcome in dealing with the problem of the supply of suitable technical education to the working classes in rural districts. Careful selection of matter and methods of instruction, and active sympathy on the part of people of influence, are alike necessary to overcome the apathy of young men and women towards continuing the education they have received in the elementary day school. The earlier part of their further education must be sufficiently related to their outside interests to appeal to them as something of definite advantage; and this should be followed by work which in itself increases their wage-earning capacity. Every effort should be made to obtain teachers having a first-hand knowledge of rural conditions and needs; the class-room

subjects may often with advantage be taught by the elementary school teacher, who in many cases will also be qualified to teach a practical subject; but in certain practical subjects a special teacher will be necessary, who in most districts will be the county lecturer in that subject. The increasing care which is being taken to connect the work of the public elementary day school with the surroundings of the scholars goes to enable the day school teacher who may be called upon to teach in the evening school, to enter into the spirit of the instruction which is there required, while improvements effected in the day school curriculum cannot but render the pupils on leaving school better fitted to enter upon the higher and more technical work of the evening school.

“Educational economy and educational efficiency are both more easily secured where classes can be concentrated in relatively large and well staffed schools. In any well considered organisation of rural education it is therefore necessary to bestow some thought on the question of the grouping of villages which may be served by one school situated in the most central village, and as easy of access from the remaining members of the group as is possible in the circumstances. To deal effectively with this matter, as well as with such special difficulties as the poverty of the students, the sparseness of the population, and the want of means of communication, experience has demonstrated the advantage of relying to a considerable extent on the local knowledge and the co-operation of persons living in the district. Indeed, genuine local interest is an almost essential factor in the success of rural evening schools.”

The Board of Education encourage County Education Authorities (with the exception of London) to arrange their evening classes upon a comprehensive plan, by offering to make an inclusive grant in aid of all the “Further Educa-

tion " within the County. A County Education Authority, which desires to receive a grant under this arrangement, submits to the Board particulars of the manner in which it is proposed to meet the educational needs of the area. The Board, if it approves the plan, tells the local authority what is the lowest amount of grant which it is prepared to pay in aid of the proposed instruction. It then lies with the local authority to accept such inclusive arrangement or to claim grants in the ordinary manner. The grant actually paid under the inclusive arrangement may be in excess of the minimum guaranteed. An instalment of the grant may be paid in the course of the year.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.

The system of evening continuation schools in Cambridgeshire is of comparatively recent growth. Prior to the passing of the Customs and Excise Act of 1890, which made the working of the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 possible, there were only eleven evening schools in the whole of the county. At the present time there is a well-equipped and well-attended evening school in every second parish.

This great advance is due to the efforts of the County Education Committee and of their Secretary, Mr. Austin Keen, co-operating with the various local committees. The constant endeavour has been to find out what subjects would be most useful and to make the teaching thoroughly practical, regard being had to the fact that the schools deal principally with the rising generation of rural workers. The curriculum is supplementary to, not a continuation of, that of the public elementary schools. Since the County Education Committee took over the elementary day schools in 1903, they have introduced into the latter much more manual and practical work (woodwork, gardening, cookery)

than was formerly taught, and it has been possible, in consequence of this change in the day school curriculum, to raise the standard of the evening school work. The Committee now expect work of a more advanced kind in rural subjects from the evening schools, including some of a practical character. It is interesting to note that the evening school work under the late Technical Instruction Committee paved the way for this beneficial change in the day school curriculum. When the County Education Committee decided to introduce more practical work into the day schools, they found ready to their hand in very many villages, woodwork plant, cookery ranges and utensils, gardens and tools, and have been able to do the work both economically and well, the county rate for elementary education being only 6½d. in the £. Great attention has been paid to the teaching of drawing and designing, especially as applied to wood-work and iron-work. Gardening, basket-work, needlework and cookery are also widely taught. In addition to the ordinary evening classes, the Education Committee arrange short peripatetic lecture courses on butter and soft cheese making, laundry-work, poultry-keeping, bee-keeping, pig-keeping and veterinary science.

Perhaps the most notable feature of the evening school work in Cambridgeshire is the Central Village Library. It contains about 6,000 volumes on Farming, Dairying, Live Stock, Poultry, Forestry, Horticulture, Natural Science, Domestic Science, and other allied subjects, together with Woodwork, Wood-carving, Metal work, and other handicrafts. From this library boxes of 50-60 books are lent free of cost to villages or schools for a period of about three months at a time, the books being circulated by a local librarian who makes himself responsible for their safe return. This library is intended more

particularly for adult students, but it contains seven or eight hundred books for young people.

The system of circulating libraries seems to have originated in a plan set on foot by Mr. Brown of Haddington in East Lothian in 1817. It was strongly advocated by William Lovett, the Chartist, in 1847. It was subsequently adopted by the Yorkshire Union of Mechanics' Institutes, the Secretary of which, Mr. Curzon, did much to popularize the idea. Next, it was adapted to University Extension purposes by the Oxford Delegacy for the Extension of University Teaching in 1887. The Universities of Cambridge, London and Manchester subsequently took up the plan. The system of Travelling Libraries was also carried out in the State of New York, and is now playing an important part in the educational work of some of the Southern States.

The management of the evening classes in Cambridgeshire is in the hands of Local Committees each of which must consist of at least five members. The Governing Body of a Secondary School, the Managers of a Public Elementary School, or similar body, may be recognised as a local committee. When a local committee, as distinct from the Governing Body of a secondary school or the Managers of an elementary school, is formed in any Division of the County, the County Councillor for, and the Alderman resident in, any such division are *ex officio* members of the committee. The Education Committee of the County retains the Board of Education grant, determines the remuneration of the teachers, approves the timetables, the subjects of instruction, the appointment of teachers, etc., and under certain conditions, makes grants to the local committees. The Local Committee has among its duties to consider what subjects shall be taught or applied for, to engage teachers, to determine, subject to

the approval of the Board of Education, what fees, if any, shall be charged, to see that all income is properly applied, to make suitable arrangements for the custody and circulation of the books (if the Village Library is being made use of) and to visit and have the general supervision of all classes. In determining what fees shall be charged, the circumstances of the different localities are carefully considered.

All the schools and classes are carried on in accordance with the regulations of the Board of Education unless special exemption is granted when the time-tables are submitted for approval. The teachers, in the majority of cases, are also elementary day school teachers, though the employment of skilled craftsmen for the practical courses is on the increase. The regular teachers are discouraged by the Committee from holding any public office or undertaking other outside work, as the practice of so doing has been found in the past seriously to interfere with the success of the evening school work.

There is in many cases a close connexion between the day and evening schools, as the Managers, as well as the teachers, are often the same for both. Better standards of work can thus be obtained and a reasonable amount of correlation can be brought about between the two kinds of school.

The cost per head for a session of about twenty weeks is nearly £1. This is met partly by the Government grant, which averages 11s. per head, partly by contributions from the County Fund.

The attitude of the farmers towards the evening classes and lectures is favourable, owing, no doubt, to the improvement in the quality of agricultural work which has often resulted from attendance at evening schools. Though many of the scholars, on completing the day school course,

leave the district altogether and enter domestic service or other employment, quite one third of those remaining find their way to the evening schools. Sometimes the classes have led to the establishment of successful cottage industries, and where this has been the case, the proficiency and industry of the workers have resulted in a considerable addition to their ordinary weekly wages. The Metal-work classes of Newton, a village with a population of about 350, realise a net profit of more than £200 a year, although the Committee discourages the continuance of such classes during the Spring and Summer months.

On account of the loneliness of the village roads on dark winter evenings, the girls' classes are usually held from 6 to 7.30 p.m., while those for the boys meet from 7 to 9.

It is difficult to gauge exactly the social and educational value of the evening school work in the County, but it is impossible to read Mr. Austin Keen's admirable reports without realising how much has been done to improve and brighten the life in the Cambridgeshire villages.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

The County is divided into eight areas. In each of these areas there is a Local Higher Education Committee, the constitution of which is fixed by the County Education Committee. The Local Higher Education Committee administers all grants which are made to the area for the purposes of education other than elementary, with the exception of any grants which may be specifically allocated to other bodies by the County Committee. Subject to the approval of the latter, it determines in what places and on what subjects classes shall be held, and selects the teachers, except such as are supplied by the County Committee. In each locality in which evening schools or classes are organised, a sub-committee of local managers, called the Local

Sub-Committee, is formed under the direction of the Local Higher Education Committee. On the Local Sub-Committee representation is given to such bodies as the Local Higher Education Committee may deem desirable, but in all cases the local elementary schools are represented, and, where classes in Domestic Science or Agriculture are held, the Domestic Science and Agricultural Sub-Committees respectively.

A certain fixed sum is allotted annually to each area for the maintenance of evening schools and classes, and, in addition, all Government grants received in respect of evening schools are paid over to the Local Higher Education Committee. If this combined sum is exceeded in any area, the excess is deducted from the grant allotted to that area for the following year. Local Higher Education Committees are expected to exercise a similar financial control over Local Sub-Committees, working under their direction. Application for classes is made by the Local Sub-Committee to the Local Higher Education Committee. The fees charged must be approved by the Board of Education and the County Education Committee, and any remission of fees which a Local Higher Education Committee may wish to make must be sanctioned in the same way. All the Evening Schools must be conducted in accordance with the regulations of the Board of Education, and the subjects taught must not be of an elementary character only. For certain subjects—Domestic Science, Agriculture, manual instruction, and mining—the County Education Committee supplies Staff Instructors, whose services are given free of charge to the Local Higher Education Committees.

In the rural districts of the County, evening continuation school work has, as yet, been very little organised. The Local Higher Education Committees are left very free,

and the greater part of the grants is expended in classes of a more or less technical character, or preparatory to classes of a technical character, in the towns, or large industrial villages, such as are found outside Bristol, in the Forest of Dean or in the weaving valleys along the edge of the Cotswolds. Classes which have been arranged in agricultural villages have had, nearly always, to be in purely elementary subjects, taught by the Head Teacher of the Elementary School. The common experience has been that very little interest is taken in such classes, that the numbers drop, and that it is impossible to continue them for a second year.

On the subject of these classes, the Secretary to the County Education Committee (Mr. H. W. Household) writes, "For my part, I hold that at present, with so little money to spend, none should be wasted on classes of this character, which only try once more to do for a few individuals what the elementary school has failed to do. It seems to me that we ought to try instead to put the elementary school right, and that, for many reasons, must take a long time."

On the other hand, he continues, certain of the classes in technical and practical subjects have been very successful, if allowance be made for the defective preparation of the students coming to them. It is not difficult to get the students interested in such subjects as wood-work or iron-work, building or machine construction, mining, plumbing, gardening, etc., where the instruction is closely related to the industries of the district and is given by men with a practical knowledge both of the subjects they teach and of the industries concerned. "The employers recognise the value of the work and their co-operation goes at once a long way to ensure success. In the same way, the Domestic Science courses, both in day and evening schools, in town

and country, are successful. The girls and their mothers like them and believe in them, and it is proved that girls, who could and would have left the day school but for their introduction, will stay on in order to attend them. The evening classes in this subject will be still more successful when we are able to further develop material which has been already suitably prepared in the "Combined Courses" which we have now been working for nearly a year in several schools, on the lines of the Scotch Supplementary Courses. I am very strongly disposed to try and give a much more manual and practical bent to the curriculum of a number of Central Elementary Schools—at any rate until the age of compulsory attendance has been considerably raised and the quality and numerical strength of the present day school staffs has been improved beyond anything which will be possible for a long time to come, unless much more money is to come from the Treasury."

As to the question of compulsory attendance at evening schools, Mr. Household writes, "I have very grave doubts as to the possibility or expediency of trying to make attendance at evening continuation schools compulsory in such a county as this and I cannot see the good of it unless the instruction is to be really worth having, and, if it is worth having, I think the boys will go to it. There is a Polytechnic near Stroud to which boys come down from the hills two or three miles away because the subjects are the right ones and the teaching is good." But, he continues, the teaching would have, for the most part, to be given by the elementary school teachers, and though there are some who can command interest and attention, the training and experience of the majority has not been such as to make them the most suitable teachers for evening schools.

"I should like to see," he continues, "a great change in the methods of training. I would have the general educa-

tion of the teacher completed before the professional training was entered upon, and I should like to see Training Colleges of very varying types—particularly for men. They should be the literary type, training teachers who will prepare boys for a secondary school course to be followed by the University, and the technological type which again would have several sub-divisions. One of these should have for its special aim the training of teachers for work on the lines of the Memorandum issued by the Board of Education on Courses of Work in Rural Evening Schools and for preliminary work of a similar kind in village day schools.”

During the coming session, experiments in the organisation of rural evening schools will be tried in two or three centres in the County. A syllabus of work covering three years, has been drawn up, on the lines of the Board’s Memorandum, and two schools will begin working in September. The first year’s course will be taken in each case by the Elementary School Master of the village which has been chosen for the experiment. Both these teachers are thoroughly in sympathy with the scheme and it is hoped that a living connexion between the day and the evening school will be established. One of the day schools in question already has gardening for its boys and the other, carpentry.

SYLLABUS OF THREE YEARS’ COURSE FOR RURAL EVENING SCHOOLS.

PREPARATORY COURSE.

1. WINTER. (24 weeks, 2 evenings a week). Alternate nights.

First night :—Reading, Writing, and Composition.

Arithmetic and Mensuration.

Elementary Rural Science.¹

12 lessons.

¹ This subject could be taken by a County Staff Instructor if necessary. In the trial courses 12 lessons will be given.

Second night :—Woodwork and Joinery from Scale drawings. 24 lessons.

The above courses could be taken by the Schoolmaster himself, assisted, if necessary, by a Local Instructor.

2. SUMMER. (1 evening a week.)

Gardening (by local Instructor acting under County Instructor).

SECOND AND THIRD YEAR.

“ Technical Course, Starting Second Winter.

1. WINTER. (24 weeks, 2 evenings a week.)

First night :—Selection to be made from the following list as suitable to the district. 24 lessons altogether.¹

12 Lessons on Agriculture.

12 Lessons on Cottage Gardening.

6 Lessons on Poultry Keeping.

6 Lessons on Bee Keeping.

6 Lessons on Principles of Shoeing (practical demonstrations at forge).

12 Lessons on Agricultural Machinery (practical work in shop).

6 Lessons on Dairying (with practical demonstrations).

Second night :—Constructive Carpentry from Scale Drawings (24 lessons).

The above courses would be taken by County Staff Instructors with the exception of Carpentry which might be conducted by a Local Instructor.

2. SUMMER. (1 evening a week.)

Gardening (by Local Instructor under County Instructor).

Classes could also be arranged in conjunction with the above for Manual Processes as follows :—

Hedging and Ditching.

Thatching.

Ploughing.

These experiments will be conducted from the central office at Gloucester and will be closely watched. Though they are only a small beginning it is in the minds of the promoters that they may ultimately develop into a larger scheme similar to that foreshadowed in the following extract from an article which appeared in the Morning Post for June 28th, 1907.

1. For instance, a course might consist of 12 lessons on Cottage Gardening, 6 on Poultry Keeping, 3 on Bee Keeping, and 3 on Agricultural Machinery.

AN EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL.

“Some weeks ago there was described in these columns a primary school of a new type for boys between twelve and fourteen years of age. It was started in the buildings of a polytechnic with the object of so preparing the boys that they should be at once fit and anxious to enter the evening classes which lead up to the highest technical and applied art courses that the polytechnic offers. If the school had no other merit—and it has many—it could claim this, that the primary school, the continuation classes, and the technical courses are directed by one head master, who can ensure that each shall fall into its place as a part of a co-ordinated whole, and that there shall be no break of gauge at any point. The boy when he enters at the age of twelve sees the whole course before him and can catch the spirit of the institution of which he has become a junior member.

“There seems to be a fear in some quarters that, if the direction of the primary school is committed to a teacher of technical subjects, the general education will be neglected and specialisation will be attempted too early. Surely the risk is small. There can be no teacher more interested in the soundness of the general education than the teacher who is afterwards to initiate the lad in his technical studies. His most bitter complaint at the present time is that the boy comes to him without that general education; that the present system for some reason either cannot impart it or cannot ensure its retention and development to practical ends.

“If the Board of Education—which on the whole has been sympathetic—will permit the extension of the experiment to other places, and particularly to rural districts, similar schools will speedily be developed. It may be expected

that the course of development will be somewhat as follows : An area will be selected where a number of primary schools lie within reasonable distances of a common centre. At that centre a school for boys over twelve years of age will be established. It will be well equipped with workshops for wood and iron work, where the boys can learn the use of tools and apply their drawing and arithmetic to design and construction. There will be gardens and experimental plots, which will furnish illustration for a course of Nature study drawn up on agricultural lines, in which the botany will be the botany of agricultural crops and grasses and injurious weeds, in which the zoology will deal with the life history of injurious insects, and the chemistry with plant life and soils and fertilisers. The head master of the school should probably be a man who has had experience in agricultural education, and with him should be associated, as his chief assistant, a primary teacher who has shown an interest in such work and who is prepared to co-operate heartily in the general scheme. Out of such a school evening classes will spring, naturally and easily, and will develop before long into a rural polytechnic that will give a crown to the scheme and provide the higher technical instruction that the small farmer and the more ambitious of the skilled labourers require. Here will be conducted the farm schools and winter schools of agriculture that are so much needed. When a county has been dotted with central institutions of this type there will come the time for a group of counties to found an agricultural college for the reception of the students from its secondary schools, and the few lads of exceptional ability who have worked their way up from the primary schools through the polytechnics. Thus there will be developed a complete scheme of agricultural education. It would, however, be idle to disguise the fact that there exist ob-

stacles at present which it will need time and patience to overcome."

NORTHUMBERLAND.

The managers of the Evening Continuation Schools in Northumberland may be the Local Committees for Higher Education or such other bodies as the Local Education Authority may approve. This regulation allows for differences in organisation in different parts of the County and in rural districts two plans have been tried. Before 1903, the system was adopted of appointing, at public meetings held at the Centre or village where the classes were to be organised, a special Committee to control Evening Class Instruction. But since 1903, this plan has been abandoned and the managers of the Elementary Schools have been requested to interest themselves in the work. The Secretary to the County Education Committee (Mr. C. Williams) feels that it is perhaps too soon to draw definite conclusions as to the relative merits of the two plans, but is inclined to think, after experience of both, that, for the effective organisation of evening school work in rural districts, there is much to be said for the periodical appointment of special local or centre committees at public meetings.

At certain places in the County, known as district centres (of which there are at present eight), the Education Committee aids evening class work by means of a fixed grant, provided a scheme of instruction is submitted by the Local Committee and approved. Other recognised evening schools and classes (and all schools in rural districts come under this head) are aided according to the grade, suitability, continuity and efficiency of the instruction, special consideration being given to those schools which provide progressive courses extending over a period of years. During recent years detached and uncorrelated courses

have been very largely discontinued and the help of the Local Authority limited more and more to proposals which give some promise of systematic and progressive educational work. But in rural districts the detached class which seems to lead educationally from "nowhere to nowhere" may still be of value to those who have not the desire or ability to pursue a systematic course of study, but who may wish to enlarge their interests or increase their knowledge of a particular subject, such as Ambulance, Woodcarving, Gardening, Poultry keeping, etc. In organising evening class work in rural districts it is found necessary to distinguish between those who need this kind of instruction and the much smaller number who have the desire and ability to pursue a progressive course of study, and for whom different provision should be made. Whether this provision should be by means of evening classes at all, or whether some more effectual way could not be devised of meeting the needs of these individual cases, seems to Mr. Williams to be an open question. He discusses this and other matters in a report which has just been issued on "Evening Class Instruction in the County of Northumberland" from which two especially interesting passages are given below.

It is the rule in Northumberland to charge fees, which must be suitable to the circumstances of the locality, in all evening schools, but the Education Committee are prepared to approve in certain cases the remission of fees to individual students.

Mr. Williams thinks that any form of compulsory attendance at continuation schools is both undesirable and impracticable in country districts and gives his reasons as follows:—"I believe it to be undesirable because it would still further aggravate the evil of neglecting to 'differentiate' in our educational policy; impracticable, because

the schools would be expensive to maintain and attendance thereat would seriously interfere with employment, and would be difficult and costly to enforce. Moreover the work of continuation schools would degenerate into a repetition of part of the work of the 4th Standard of an Elementary School, to the exclusion of higher elementary teaching for the few who desire it."

But Northumberland is not by any means exclusively a rural county and in the report referred to above Mr. Williams discusses the general question of the object and justification of evening class instruction in both urban and rural districts and gives some of the results of the fifteen years experience of the County Council in organising such instruction. The passages given below have a much wider application than to one county alone, and no apology is needed for quoting them at length—

"As in the sphere of elementary education, there are (in evening class instruction) different although not perhaps conflicting ideas as to aims, which may be summed up thus:—

(a) That evening class instruction is required in order to afford a necessary educational opportunity for those who leave the day school at the age of 14, *or*

(b) that by attendance at evening classes the intelligence and the efficiency of the worker is increased, *or*

(c) that it is desirable to encourage evening classes of all kinds on social and civic grounds.

To provide equality of educational opportunity in an administrative county by means of evening schools is not possible without incurring a large expenditure, and it is doubtful whether the results would justify such expenditure. In the agricultural districts, the limited number of children who require, or who merit, systematic education beyond that given in the elementary school can be perhaps

more effectually and economically provided by (i) scholarships to be held at secondary schools, and by (ii) the establishment of upper divisions in certain elementary schools. In the centres of larger population, evening class instruction does not represent a necessary educational opportunity for those who begin the business of life at 14 years of age. But the number of persons who desire, and who possess the determination to pursue for a series of years, a systematic course of instruction, is small – smaller, probably, than it is commonly believed to be. Much might be said in favour of the idea of encouraging attendance at evening lectures or classes of all kinds on social grounds. The activities and occupations of leisure are, in the interests of the commonwealth, as important as efficiency during working hours, and it would be unwise to dismiss as educationally valueless, any form of teaching, “detached” or “systematic” which enlists the voluntary attention of a number of young people.”

“The fifteen years’ experience of the County Council in the organisation of evening class instruction,” the report continues, “appears to point to the necessity for more definitely distinguishing between the conditions, and consequently the requirements, of different localities, and of determining whether certain forms of instruction are entitled to continued support out of public resources. Intelligence is of value in all industries and under all conditions, but book or school knowledge is not of equal industrial importance. The essential efficiency of manual workers in any industry moreover, does not depend upon their book or school knowledge, although such knowledge may increase their interests and enlarge the horizon of their lives. But there are certainly some employments in which the skill and experience to be acquired only in the workshop, should be supplemented by instruction.

This may be said of nearly every trade where the tradition of apprenticeship survives. It is perhaps doubtful whether, for the rural population, the attempt to provide the means of systematic education "other than elementary," by means of evening classes, is productive. Individuals here and there, no doubt, have derived substantial benefit by reason of the facilities afforded, but it seems to be an open question whether a more effectual means could not be devised to reach these individual cases. In the mining, engineering, and shipbuilding districts, however, and in the towns where young men are employed in building trades or in commercial undertakings, a well-devised course of evening class instruction should be of definite and productive educational value. It was suggested earlier in this report that the number of persons who desire, and who possess the determination to pursue for a series of years, a systematic course of instruction, is smaller probably than it is commonly believed to be. It is one of the functions of the elementary school "while making children conscious of the limitations of their knowledge, to develop in them such a taste for good reading and thoughtful study as will enable them to increase their knowledge in after years by their own efforts." And it is a matter of somewhat serious concern that under present conditions elementary school teaching does not appear to produce this result. In the County of Northumberland each year there will be approximately 10,000 boys and girls over 14 and under 16 years of age. The number between these ages in regular attendance at evening schools ten years ago was about 500, or 5 per cent.; for the session just concluded (1906-7) the number was not larger. The generally consistent character of the statistics relating to the ages of evening students emphasises the conclusion. The following is an analysis of the ages of pupils in evening schools; the

figures for 1896-7 relate to average attendance, and those for the other years to pupils presented for examination:—

	Under 14	14-16	16-18	18-20	Over 20
1896-7	236	519	248	122	146
1903-4	49	464	303	162	214
1905-6	58	422	317	167	214
1906-7	28	338	309	121	168

CUMBERLAND.

The Evening Continuation Schools in Cumberland are managed by Local Committees for Higher Education who are either

- (1) The Urban District Council or Parish Council *or*
- (2) A Committee appointed by the Urban District Council, Parish Council or Parish Meeting *or*
- (3) In cases where these bodies do not act, persons nominated by the locality and approved by the County Authority.

All Local Committees must contain a fair proportion of women and of other persons interested in education.

Subject to the conditions laid down by the County Authority, Local Committees make their own arrangements for the conduct of the classes, including the engagement of the teachers and the payment of all local expenses. The County Authority makes, to any approved class, a grant sufficient to meet the salary of the teacher, rent of room, etc., according to the fixed scale, but subject to the condition that in no case is any County grant given unless the minimum grant of the Board of Education has been earned. Prizes are given by the County Education Committee and special grants may be made towards establishing classes in manual work, etc., towards the provision of lanterns, slides, etc., towards the cost of courses in

gardening, towards the expenses of organisation in rural districts. In order to give managers and teachers of evening schools an opportunity of ascertaining the progress made by the pupils under their charge, an Optional Examination has been instituted at the close of each Winter Session. In March last 34 schools entered and 778 papers were worked, of which 570 reached a Pass Standard and 218 failed to do so. The number of papers worked at each evening school averaged about 23. Upon the results of this examination County Prizes are awarded (*a*) for the best paper in each subject and (*b*) to the student in each class gaining highest aggregate of marks. The subjects examined in were Arithmetic, Mensuration, Algebra, Geography, History, Euclid, Elementary Chemistry, Domestic Economy, Hygiene, Dressmaking, Woodcarving, Drawing.

Some fee is required in the case of all evening classes but, within approved limits, the Local Committees are free to fix the amount according to local circumstances.

In the opinion of the Secretary to the County Education Committee, Mr. C. Courtenay Hodgson, M.A., a competent and really interested Local Committee can do very much to make the evening school work in a rural district successful. But even where Committees are competent and interested, constant supervision and encouragement from head quarters are necessary, and personal visits from a sympathetic officer from the Central Office are very desirable, though not always possible owing to the pressure of other work. A good supply of lanterns and slides, diagrams, specimens etc., is a great aid to success, but the most important factor of all is the teacher. Given an energetic and interested teacher, the class will prosper: without a good teacher, no amount of appliances will make it successful. Much may be done by means of Saturday

lectures and by personal talks to stimulate and help the evening class teachers, who in the majority of cases are the teachers of the elementary day schools.

With regard to the subjects best adapted to the needs of boys and girls who have just left the village school, it is not, in Mr. Hodgson's opinion, possible to generalise for a whole county. Each case should be considered in the light of the social position and surroundings of the children and their probable future avocations. The teacher, who is generally the village schoolmaster, should know best what his old scholars need, if he be not misled by the natural desire to teach those subjects with which he himself is best acquainted, rather than those which will be most useful to his pupils. Speaking generally, classes in manual work, *e.g.*, carpentry and smith work, with the drawing incidental thereto, should be useful for boys; and cooking, laundry, sewing and simple hygiene for the girls. Nature study and botany are suitable for both boys and girls, and with both, a good English classic should be read and the habit of reading fostered.

Special steps are taken by Local Committees in some districts in Cumberland to ensure that the older day scholars shall pass on into the evening classes. The importance of securing their attendance there without a break is increasingly felt, and Mr. Hodgson thinks that, on the whole, opinion is growing in favour of some form of compulsion. For his own part, he is inclined to think that, in rural districts, a better plan would be to have a winter day school session for older scholars, at any rate for boys, prolonged beyond the present compulsory school age, but allowing the boys to be free for agricultural work in the summer months.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.

The Evening Continuation Schools in Buckinghamshire are managed by Local Committees, appointed in different ways according to the nature of the smaller local government areas into which the County is divided, but always including some women and, in country districts, the managers, or representatives of the managers, of the elementary school or schools. The County Education Committee retain the Board of Education grant, fix the remuneration of the teachers and the limits within which fees may be charged, and make grants, on certain conditions, to the Local Committees. Subject to their approval, the Local Committees choose the subjects of instruction, appoint and dismiss the teachers and decide what fees shall be charged. The latter must be not less than a penny a week, nor more than a penny a night, for continuation schools proper; for special evening classes, not more than twopence a meeting. There are no free schools or classes, but, on the application of a Local Committee, the Education Committee is prepared to consider the remission of fees in individual cases. Fees are returned to those pupils who make 90 per cent. or over of the possible attendances.

The number of evening schools in Buckinghamshire has grown considerably since the first County Council grants were given. In 1899-1900, the last year before the County Scheme came into operation, there were only 26 schools in the whole area; in 1905-6, the last year for which complete statistics are available, the number was 81, with a total average attendance of 2,590. Of these 81 schools, 44 were continuation schools proper, conducted under the regulations of the Board of Education and, for the most part, taught by the teachers of the Elementary Day Schools; the remaining 37 were special schools and classes, generally

under special teachers, and, wherever possible, working under Board of Education regulations. The subjects taken in these special classes included Science, Art, Manual Instruction or woodcarving, commercial subjects, Ambulance, domestic subjects, Lace-making, Agriculture, Horticulture, etc. University Extension Lectures are also allowed to count as special classes. The total average attendance at the Continuation Schools proper, the number of which is on the whole declining was 836; at the special classes, 1724.

In the rural parts of Buckinghamshire, as in similar districts elsewhere, it is found that the success or otherwise of the evening school depends upon the personality of the elementary day school teacher. There are other important factors no doubt, such as the co-operation of those who have influence in the district, adequate remuneration for evening school work, etc., but unless the right teacher is found, these are of no avail.

The subjects found to be best adapted to the needs of boys and girls in villages during the years immediately following the day school course are: -

FOR BOYS: -

English, especially standard works of fiction (Stead's penny novels have been found useful).

Carpentry, together with drawing to scale.

Mensuration, applied to rural requirements.

FOR GIRLS: ---

English, in the same way as for boys.

Domestic Economy, including cookery and housewifery.

Needlework, especially applied to the mending of garments.

During the session ending July 31st, 1907, the number of evening schools has increased to 101. Fifty-eight of

these were continuation schools proper and forty-three special schools or classes. All the schools and classes have this session been conducted under the regulations of the Board of Education, and the special classes have generally been under staff teachers.

Consulted as to the desirability of some form of compulsory attendance at evening schools, the Secretary¹ to the County Education Committee, Mr. C. G. Watkins, gives it as his opinion that some form of compulsion is, no doubt, ideally desirable. The work of the day school needs supplementing; it is wasteful, both of energy and money, to spend millions annually upon the education of children up to about thirteen years of age and then to make no determined effort to continue their instruction. "But," he adds, "I feel that public opinion is not yet ripe for compulsory attendance. The cost would be very great, defaulters would be numerous, the average Bench of Magistrates would either not convict or impose a trifling fine, and to coerce unwilling youths to receive instruction, especially under women teachers in the villages, would be a menace to discipline."

The County Education Committee have availed themselves of the Board's offer of an inclusive grant for "further education," and are now working under the new regulation described at the beginning of this chapter.

YORKSHIRE, EAST RIDING.

The County Council are themselves the managers of the evening continuation schools in the East Riding. It has been found difficult to arouse interest amongst local managers, although as a rule the correspondent of the day school gives much help. Consequently, except for the correspondent, the services of local managers for the evening schools have been dispensed with; the Council are

directly responsible for all expenses of salaries, heating, lighting and cleaning, and the schools are managed, in most respects, directly from the Central Office at Beverley.

Every village is given the chance of having an evening school, if the schoolmaster or some other person will try to arouse the necessary interest. In the session 1906-7 evening schools were held in 17 centres, 13 of which are small villages. The total cost was £430., 10 per cent of which was covered by students' fees. Fees are everywhere insisted upon—as a rule 1d to 3d a week, or about 2s. for the whole session. Formerly half fees were returned to all those who made 80 per cent. of the possible attendances, but during the last session this practice was discontinued and the Council offered instead prizes for good attendance combined with good work. Regular weekly returns of attendance are received at the Central Office and if the number in a class falls below 10 on three consecutive nights, the class is, as a rule, discontinued. There is the same difficulty here as elsewhere in keeping up the attendance after Christmas. As the evenings get lighter, the farmers keep the boys longer in the fields and attendance at evening school becomes very difficult. So much so, that during the past winter, the Council have for the most part been satisfied with a short session of twelve weeks from October to December. To have the schools open on two evenings a week is generally considered sufficient, but there are some successful evening schools in the County which meet three times a week. Mr. A. W. Priestley, the Inspector of Schools for the East Riding County Council, writes, "The difficulties (as to attendance) are great in small villages. We have one or two exceptional cases where boys have walked nearly three miles twice a week to an evening school. In remote villages it is the rule to hold public meetings only at the time of the full moon.

Scholars regularly attending evening schools must often have long walks through dark lanes, and in bad weather. We ought not to compel them to undertake these journeys, though we should attract them if we can. Then, when the school has been formed, attendance is often interfered with by such things as local fairs, a special concert in the village, a club, feast, a bazaar or a revival at the chapel or a special lecture at the village institute. Or the school may be the only meeting place in the village and it may be required for a political meeting or even a dance. Where most of the students are engaged on farms, the Martinmas hirings, held in the month of November, often reduce the number of students just enrolled in an evening school." Everything depends, he continues, upon the teacher. Personal interest on the part of the teachers will do much. Some arrange a social evening once or twice during the session, others provide a supper at the close, but the best rely chiefly on making the teaching worth coming for. Any form of compulsion he feels to be impracticable. "We can only cater for those who desire self improvement. We must depend on this incentive, and if the day school work is well done, I think we can rely on it." But when there is a poor day school and a master without enthusiasm, it is impossible to make the evening school succeed, for a poor day school master will not be able to draw his old scholars back to the evening school, or to keep them there, even if they are persuaded to come. But, if the attendance is to remain voluntary, the schools must be made really good. They can only flourish when the teaching is on a very high level and the subjects are attractive or such as are felt to be practically useful. And in this connexion he emphasises the importance of enlisting the sympathy of local employers of labour. Unfortunately the farmers, who are the chief employers of labour in rural districts,

are not always in sympathy with the work in the East Riding. They feel themselves already overburdened by the education rate and are often unwilling to be parties to any schemes involving expense. The co-operation of enthusiastic helpers who are not professional teachers is recommended by Mr. Priestley. "In one village," he says, "we have had a successful class in bench work (carpentry) taught by the clergyman, whose hobby was bench work. The schoolmaster taught the drawing. In another village, the local doctor, a man of wide reading and a fine enthusiasm, took quite a large class in home nursing, ambulance, and the care of the body. In a third village, the schoolmaster himself, who is a good musician, made vocal music his chief subject and kept together a good evening school."

He adds that mathematics of a practical kind, *i.e.*, arithmetic, mensuration and geometry, with special reference to stack-measuring, sale of cattle and garden produce and the occupations of the district, generally succeed. The same is true of needlework, if skilfully taught. Geography, if taught by someone of wide reading, and if well illustrated by lantern or otherwise, is an excellent subject. A good course in drawing, by a specially qualified art master, has also been successful and so have one or two evening school gardens. English literature has not, so far, been a good subject, chiefly, he thinks, because there are so few people qualified to teach it; and the same applies to agriculture (soils, crops, etc.) and to nature study. Everything, in evening schools, even more than in day schools, depends upon the teacher.

During the session 1897-8, it is proposed by the County Education Committee to make certain changes in their regulations for the conduct of evening schools. With a view to making each locality feel more direct responsibility

for the working and success of the school, a local managing committee, consisting of at least three persons interested in evening school work, is to be appointed, and no evening school will be sanctioned unless the local committee can raise and pay down, before the session begins, a contribution (which may include students' fees) equal to at least 20 per cent. of the gross estimated cost of maintaining the school during the session.

CHAPTER VII.

Result of an Inquiry into the Working of Continuation Schools in England.

WITH a view to ascertaining the opinions of those who are actually engaged in the work of the evening continuation schools, the following form of questions was widely distributed amongst teachers and others :—

EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

The following answers are based on experience of years in Evening Continuation Schools of one or more of the following types :—

[*Strike out those of which you have no personal experience.*]

- (a) Strictly continuative of work done in day school, and immediately following close of day school course, or reviving, after a gap, knowledge of Elementary Subjects (1) for Boys; (2) for Girls.
- (b) Teaching Scientific and Technical Subjects to youths and adults.
- (c) Teaching Commercial Subjects (1) for Boys; (2) for Girls.
- (d) Teaching Domestic Subjects.
- (e) Recreative Evening Schools.
- (f)

Please state also whether your experience has been in Evening Continuation Schools :—

- (1) In country districts.
- (2) In small towns.
- (3) In cities, or other large centres of population.

1. What do you think should be the aims of Evening Continuation Schools of the different types?

2. In what respects do you feel that the work of the Evening Continuation Schools has been successful in accomplishing these aims?

3. With what special difficulties have the Evening Continuation Schools had to contend?

4. Do you think that the Evening Continuation Schools are doing (1) on the intellectual, (2) on the moral and social side, work commensurate with the labour and funds now devoted to them?

5. Do you think that the teachers in Day Schools should be encouraged to take Evening School work? Have arrangements been made, in your experience, for excusing Evening School teachers from part of their Day School work, with a view to their duties in the Evening School?

6. Are there any difficulties with regard to discipline?

7. What is the attitude of the employers of labour towards the Evening Schools? Do you know of any cases where employers encourage or require attendance, on the part of apprentices or workpeople, at Evening Schools? If so, please give details and results of experience. Do you know of cases where employers excuse apprentices from day-work in order that they may attend Technical Classes in the daytime? If so, please give details.

8. What is the attitude of the workpeople towards Evening Continuation Schools, especially those of a technical character? Do you see any disposition on the part of working-men's organisations towards arranging Technical Classes, on their own account, or in conjunction with employers, for the better education of their apprentices?

9. What is the attitude of parents towards the Evening Continuation Schools? Do they encourage their children to attend?

10. What is the attitude of the rising generation towards Evening Continuation Schools? Do you see signs of increased keenness, or the reverse?

11. Have you had any experience of requiring all students at an Evening Continuation School to take a prescribed group of subjects instead of isolated courses? If so, with what results?

12. What plans have you found most successful in increasing and maintaining the attendance at Evening Continuation Schools?

13. Could more be done to make the Evening Continuation Schools feeders and auxiliaries to the Technical Schools? What arrangements would you suggest for this?

14. Are you in favour of making attendance at Evening Continuation Schools compulsory: (a) for Boys, (b) for Girls? If so, under what conditions?

15. Do you see signs of increased desire on the part of adults to avail themselves of Evening Continuation Schools in order to make up for deficiencies in their early education?

16. Do you think that more should be done to arrange, as part of the Evening School system, well illustrated evening courses on History, Geography, Science, etc., with a special view to the needs of adult students?

17. Could more be done to grade the Evening Continuation Schools in a given district, according to their different types and standards of work?

18. Have you had experience in combining Evening Continuation School work with other forms of social and educational effort, e.g., Social Clubs, University Extension Courses, Adult Schools, etc.?

Please add any further information or suggestions which you are able to give for the purpose of the enquiry:—

Signature.

Address...

Seventy-nine forms have been returned filled up (71 by men, 8 by women), and the answers to the various questions are summarised below. The great majority come from teachers, but a few are from local administrators and managers, and one is from an old evening school pupil. The forms were distributed, for the most part, through the Education Department of the Victoria University of Manchester, and the answers, as was to be expected, refer largely to schools in the North of England, though other parts of this country are also represented, as will be seen from the following list of the places from which they were received:—Accrington, Birmingham, Blackburn, Bolton, Bradford, Brighton, Burnley, Burslem, Bury, Chorley, Dearham, Ebbw Vale (Mon.), Eccles, Fleetwood, Grange-over-Sands, Leeds, Llandilo, London, Manchester, Maryport, Oswaldtwistle, Oxford, Peterborough and neighbourhood, Preston, Rochdale, St. Helens, Sale, Salford, Sheffield, Smethwick, Stockport, Walsall, Worcester, Workington; a few were also received from country places in Cumberland, Devonshire, Oxfordshire and Westmorland and (one each) from Dublin and Kilmarnock.

The number of years' experience is given in 62 out of the 79 cases, the average for the 62 being between seven and eight years.

The experience has been gained in all types of schools, but principally in types (a), (b) and (c) (see form above). It has, as will be seen from the list of places already given, been for the most part in large centres of population, though a good many of the writers have also had experience in small towns, and a few in country districts. The actual numbers (some having had experience in more than one place) are:—

Cities and other large centres of population—	65
Small towns 	20
Country districts 	12

SUMMARY OF ANSWERS.

Question 1. *What do you think should be the aims of evening continuation schools of the different types?*

Answered by 72 out of 79.

Of these 72, 39 answer the question in general terms and 33 refer definitely to one or more of the types of school mentioned in the introductory paragraphs of the form.

Two aims stand clearly above all others: (1) the making of good citizens; (2) the training of skilled artisans and workers, including in the latter term clerks and business assistants.

With regard to the first, it is felt that the schools have great opportunities of influencing the boys and girls who will be the citizens of the next generation, and that those opportunities should be used to fit them, so far as may be possible, faithfully to discharge the duties and responsibilities which will devolve upon them.

With regard to the second point, it is urged that the schools, while not neglecting other more humanising subjects, should so arrange their courses as definitely to prepare the students for the trades and occupations which they propose eventually to follow. In schools of types (b) and (c) this should be the dominant aim. In type (a) schools, while most of the work would necessarily be of a more general character, promising pupils should be prepared for entrance to technical schools or other higher classes. In this connexion stress is laid upon the desirability of keeping in touch with local industries. Even in schools which are mainly recreative in character, much may be done in this way to make the teaching of real practical use to the pupils.

Other points mentioned are:—(1) The need for physical training in evening schools. In recreative evening schools especially, one of the chief aims should be the improvement of the physique of the pupils. (2) In all schools the reading of good books and the use of the public libraries should be encouraged. (3) In recreative schools much training of hand and eye should be given with a view to providing healthy leisure pursuits. (4) The importance of the moral and social side of the work should never be lost sight of, even in those schools which are most definitely practical in their aims.

Question 2. *In what respects do you feel that the work of the evening continuation schools has been successful in accomplishing these aims?*

Answered by 64 out of 79.

Six consider that the schools have not been successful; 56 are, on the whole, of opinion that they have had a qualified success. This success would appear to have been greatest in the direction of preparing for a particular trade or occupation, and of securing some advancement in life, but even so, only to a moderate extent and with the few. In continuing the work of the elementary day schools, in filling the gap between the latter and the technical schools and in reviving forgotten knowledge, they would seem also to have had a moderate success. A few speak of some success in spreading a general desire for knowledge and love of reading, in developing powers of expression, in giving artistic manual training, in teaching domestic subjects, in training for citizenship, in improving the industries of a district, and in work on the social, moral and physical sides; but the general impression is that the success has almost everywhere been partial and

limited to a comparatively small number of the pupils. Two answers are too vague to be counted.

Question 3. *With what special difficulties have the evening schools had to contend?*

Answered by 73 out of 79.

The difficulty most often mentioned is the indifference of the students themselves, their unwillingness to come to school after leaving the day school, and their objection when there to doing any home work. The unwillingness to come to evening school is said to be sometimes due to fear of betraying lack of education. This is especially the case with adults. Next comes the difficulty of irregular attendance, and, connected with it, the haphazard choice of subjects which leads to loss of interest and consequent falling off in attendance. Want of leisure, the working of overtime and consequent fatigue of students comes next. Then come the indifference of employers and parents, and difficulties of classification owing to differences of age. Among other difficulties mentioned are those of discipline (including large classes); want of preparation in the day school or elsewhere; the gap between leaving the day school and joining the evening school, which makes the schools not "continuation," in any real sense, but "revision" schools; the long gap between the sessions; want of funds (for scholarships, prizes, payment of teachers, etc.); the want of proper fittings and apparatus; the apathy of the public and lack of influential support; difficulties of staffing (jaded and incapable teachers); attractions of the streets and of entertainments (including meetings of religious societies), and, in the case of country schools, the drift of population from the villages and the easier means of access to towns;

bad effects of prize and returned-fee schemes; overlapping of schools in a given district; the unsympathetic attitude of some day school teachers; lack of compulsion.

Question 4. *Do you think the evening continuation schools are doing (1) on the intellectual, (2) on the moral and social side, work commensurate with the labour and funds now devoted to them?*

Answered by 74 out of 79.

37 answers to (1) and 29 answers to (2) are in the negative, though several speak of the good work being done on both sides.

33 answers to (1) and 35 to (2) are in the affirmative, though often with qualifications. The social side is said sometimes to be overdone at the expense of the intellectual.

4 answers to (1) and 10 to (2) were too doubtful to be counted either as negatives or affirmatives.

Question 5. *Do you think that the teachers in day schools should be encouraged to take evening school work?*

Have arrangements been made in your experience for excusing evening school teachers from part of their day school work, with a view to their duties in the evening school?

Answered by 78 out of 79. [The second part of the question left unanswered by 10, who have been counted as answering in the negative.]

The answers to the first part of the question may be classified as follows:—

Decided and unqualified negatives, 17.

Decided and unqualified affirmatives, 30.

In addition to these, 7 say "No, unless excused day

work," making altogether 24 negatives; and 9 say "Yes, if excused day work," or "within reasonable limits," etc., making altogether 39 affirmatives.

Fifteen give doubtful or qualified answers, such as, that it should depend on the character of the teachers; that at present they are often the only qualified teachers available; that it is good in one class of school, where the subjects are similar to those taught in the day school, but not in more specialised schools; that it is good in the country and small places, but not in large towns, etc.

The answers to the second part of the question are almost all in the negative:—

Sixty (including the 10 who do not answer) give an unqualified negative.

Twelve say No, except in the case of higher classes and technical schools, and in the latter, as one of the answers points out, the arrangement is one of the conditions of tenure, not a case of excuse from day-work.

Two have heard or known of such an arrangement, but have not experienced it.

Four only have had personal experience of such a plan.

Question 6. *Are there any difficulties with regard to discipline?*

Answered by 78 out of 79.

In 56 cases no difficulty, or very little, has been experienced.

In 22 cases difficulty has been experienced, but in three cases it is said to be confined to elementary continuation schools (type (a)), two out of the three distinctly stating that there is no difficulty in science classes. On the other hand, one answer speaks of difficulty in connection with practical science teaching, the necessary liberty degenerating into licence.

Good discipline, of course, depends almost entirely upon the tact, considerateness, and experience of the teacher. He must recognise the difference between the day and the evening school, and must not only teach, but be the friend of his pupils, ready to advise in difficulties and to know them out of school. But he must also be firm and have the power to expel the rowdy and undesirable element. One of the great difficulties as to discipline has arisen from the desire on the part of managers and teachers to have a large attendance, and from the fear of lessening numbers by enforcing order in the classes. Connected with this is the students' lack of interest in serious work; they come, many of them, because forced to do so by parents, or because they think they can have a good time, and they leave if order and work are enforced. Classes should be smaller.

Question 7. (a) *What is the attitude of employers of labour towards the evening schools?*

(b) *Do you know of any cases where employers encourage or require attendance, on the part of apprentices or workpeople, at evening schools? If so, please give details and results of experience.*

(c) *Do you know of cases where employers excuse apprentices from day-work in order that they may attend technical classes in the day-time? If so, please give details.*

Answered (wholly or in part) by 75 out of 79.

On the whole, though opinions are very nearly balanced, the answers seem to show that the attitude of employers is encouraging, or at least not adverse, and that they are becoming more alive to the necessity of technical training for their apprentices.¹ But it is thought that they might

1. The considerable and growing interest taken in the evening schools by many large employers in England is shown by the returns given in Chapter VIII

do much more than at present strongly to advise, if not compel, apprentices to attend technical classes. Several of the answers speak of their attitude as that of indifference and a few describe it as hostile. Even when favourable to science and technical classes, they are sometimes indifferent to the ordinary continuation schools.

In answer to (b) several instances are given of the payment of apprentices' fees by employers; of employers making the attendance of apprentices at technical classes compulsory; and of various methods by which attendance is encouraged, such as excusing apprentices a few hours' work on the morning after attendance at evening school (arrival at 9 instead of 6), extra wages or prizes given on the results of examinations. The results of experience are very rarely given, but would seem to be favourable so far as known.

(c) Few instances are actually known to the writers of apprentices being excused day-work in order to attend day technical classes. Engineering firms in the Manchester district and other firms in several places, e.g., Bradford, Bolton, are mentioned as making such an arrangement.

Question 8. What is the attitude of workpeople towards evening continuation schools, especially those of a technical character? Do you see any disposition on the part of working-men's organisations towards arranging technical classes, on their own account, or in conjunction with employers, for the better education of their apprentices?

Answered (wholly or in part) by 61 out of 79. Of these 61, 9 do not answer the first part of the question.

The majority of the 52 answers to the general question speak of the attitude of the workpeople as, for the most

part, indifferent, though it would seem that the interest is growing, and that the younger men, at any rate, are beginning to see the need of technical training. A minority are already keen about it. Some few speak of the attitude of the workpeople as favourable, but two or three, on the other hand, describe it as contemptuous or even adverse, the reason given for their hostility being that the new apprentices know too much. Scientific and technical classes, especially when in connexion with local industries, would seem to be more appreciated than ordinary continuation schools.

Except in the case of co-operative societies, hardly any instances are known of technical classes arranged by working-men's organisations. In one case a society of workmen has established a complete equipment of textile spinning machinery and conducts weekly meetings for studying the problems connected therewith. Trade unions are said by one writer to have brought pressure to bear on Town Councils, etc., to organise technical classes in districts where they were specially needed, but he thinks as a rule that the organisations, like the men themselves, are still indifferent to technical instruction. One reason given for this is the opinion that the increased efficiency of apprentices benefits employers more than workpeople.

Question 9. *What is the attitude of parents towards the evening continuation schools? Do they encourage their children to attend?*

Answered by 75 out of 79.

Although the attitude of the majority of parents is said to be that of indifference to evening continuation schools, there seems to be a considerable and growing minority who acknowledge their usefulness and encourage their children to attend. This is especially the case among the

better class parents. But they still, even when encouraging attendance, take too little interest in the work done by their children, and the school is often looked upon as a means of keeping the boys and girls off the streets rather than as a place of education. With regard to girls, the parents' attitude might be expressed, according to one writer, by saying the "girls have enough else to do, and do not need learning so much as boys." Parents, as a rule, are too eager to get their children to work, and, according to one opinion, do not care to encourage attendance at continuation schools unless some direct monetary advantage is in sight. Moreover, when once the children are earning their own living, they get beyond the control of home, and parents cannot, even if they would, enforce attendance at evening schools.

Question 10. *What is the attitude of the rising generation towards evening continuation schools? Do you see signs of increased keenness, or the reverse?*

Answered by 74 out of 79.

On the whole there seems to be an increase of interest on the part of the rising generation in evening continuation schools, especially in those of a scientific and technical kind. One or two, who note increased interest in this type of school, mention a falling off of interest in schools of type (a). But there is still a great mass of indifference, and some few answers speak of positive decrease in interest. The raising of the day school leaving age is said to have been one cause of this decrease of interest. The children who leave school at fourteen think that they know all that is necessary for life, and it is only after two or three years that they find out their mistake. Then they come to

evening school, but often give up disappointed because of the difficulty of mental application which has grown upon them with neglect. On the other hand, one writer speaks of the pupils who come from fifteen onwards, after finding out their own deficiencies, as the most satisfactory; they have grit. According to another, though the scholars show more appreciation than formerly of the advantages to be gained from attendance at evening school, they show less power of self-help when there; want short and easy ways to knowledge, rely too much on the teacher, and do not take the trouble to look things up for themselves. Some just come for amusement and to get prizes, and take no real interest in their work, or, as one answer describes it, they accept attendance when insisted upon by parents or employers as one of the incidental worries of youth, and minimise it as far as may be by getting as much fun out of the situation as it is capable of yielding.

Much depends on the attitude of the day school teachers towards the evening schools.

Question 11. *Have you had any experience of requiring all students at an evening continuation school to take a prescribed group of subjects instead of isolated courses?*

Answered by 70 out of 79.

Of these, 24 have had no experience of the kind. The remaining 46 have had experience, or can give instances, of either requiring or encouraging students to take a prescribed group of subjects instead of isolated courses. Only in three cases where the plan has been tried is it said to have led to a falling off in the attendance. The arrangement would seem, from the instances quoted, to be more general in connection with the classes at technical schools than in the evening continuation schools proper.

Almost all speak of the results as excellent; in one instance not only is the general tone of the work said to be improved, but the plan has led to definite science work and real literary study on the part of students. But, in the opinion of some, there is danger of requiring too many subjects and of pressing the students beyond their powers, in which case all the work suffers.

Question 12. *What plans have you found most successful in increasing and maintaining the attendance at evening continuation schools?*

Answered by 67 out of 79.

Various plans for keeping up the attendance are given. Prize schemes and returned-fee schemes are very general, but there seems to be a good deal of objection felt to these as forms of bribery, and as failing to attract students of any worth. One teacher says that the girls come only for the prizes, and that if, through some accident, the chance of a prize is lost, the girl in question will cease to attend for the rest of the session. The essential things would seem to be to have first-rate teaching in classes of reasonable size, and an attractive curriculum bearing as much as possible on the daily work or future prospects of the pupils. The work should be progressive. Regular and carefully corrected home-work is also a good thing, and one plan which has been found useful is to have printed notes of lessons and directions for home-work; so that students obliged to be absent may not fall hopelessly behind. It is good to supplement the curriculum with occasional lantern lectures on popular subjects. The influence of the teacher also counts for a very great deal. He must take a personal interest in the pupils and their individual difficulties, and be willing to keep in touch with them out of school. Social gatherings (including summer

outings, dancing, etc.), are also useful, especially if students are themselves encouraged to take part in the organisation of any entertainments given. But they must be used with discretion, lest they degenerate into another form of bribery, and must not be allowed to interfere with the regular work of the school.

Other means which have been found effective are:— Scholarships and certificates; encouraging the students to work for recognised examinations, and to form themselves into associations; the introduction of physical exercises; the giving of much time to drawing; the introducing of recreative subjects, such as wood-carving; provision of reading and games' room; exhibitions of work; the interesting of parents and employers; and last, though not least, prompt inquiry after absentees, and the interesting of the students themselves in the general well-being of the school and the formation of a committee of students and others, whose business it shall be, amongst other things, to visit absent members. Some would combine, in greater or lesser degree, almost all these plans.

Question 13. *Could more be done to make evening continuation schools feeders and auxiliaries to the technical schools? What arrangements would you suggest for this?*

Answered by 64 out of 79.

All the answers but two are in the affirmative. These two refer to country districts and are doubtful on account of the isolation of many country evening schools. The principal arrangements suggested are:—The better grading of the various schools in a given locality, certain ones preparing definitely for the more specialised work of the technical school; or the better classification of the work in each individual evening school, certain classes

in the school being organised in definite preparation for the technical school. The technical schools, in the opinion of many, should give up doing elementary work and refuse admittance to students not sufficiently advanced to take up technical work at once. Admission might be by examination based on evening school work, or there might be an evening school leaving certificate, which should admit to the technical school. In this connection stress is laid on the need at present for good training in elementary mathematics at evening continuation schools. Several mention the need of scholarships and bursaries from the evening school to the technical school, and instances are given of scholarship schemes already in existence. Better staffing, buildings and equipment are also needed before the evening schools can properly prepare scholars for the technical school, and a higher standard of admission to the former should be made possible by a better grounding of the children in the day schools. One writer would have all the evening schools in a given locality under the control of the technical school; but, short of that, it is considered that much might be done by more co-operation between the teachers in the two classes of school. The technical school teachers should make known what they think a lad ought to know when he comes to them, and the evening school teachers should do more to encourage their pupils to proceed to the technical school.

Question 14. *Are you in favour of making attendance at evening continuation schools compulsory—(a) for boys, (b) for girls? If so, under what conditions?*

Answered by 75 out of 79.

42 are, on the whole, in favour of compulsion for both boys and girls.

8 are in favour of it for boys, but against it, or doubtful, for girls.

25 are against it for both.

The following are some of the objections felt to making attendance compulsory : ---

(1) The general objection to State compulsion : the only justifiable form of compulsion is that exercised by parents and employers. [One writer has such a rooted objection to compulsion that he looks with suspicion, even on the encouragement given by employers to their apprentices to attend evening continuation schools.]

(2) The difficulty of enforcing attendance and of making the scholars work when you have got them.

(3) The difficulty of getting teachers.

(4) The increased cost.

(5) The strain on delicate children (especially girls) who have to work for their living.

(6) If the attendance at day school up to fourteen were everywhere compulsory, that ought to be sufficient preparation for the technical school. Better raise the compulsory age for the day school than enforce attendance at the evening school.

(7) Those whom the evening schools can benefit will come voluntarily; compulsion will only bring in the stupid and undesirable.

The conditions suggested by those who approve of compulsion are mainly concerned with the upper age limit and the number of evenings and hours per week for which attendance should be required. The lowest age suggested is fifteen, and the highest eighteen. Sometimes certain conditions are added, such as " unless an examination of a certain standard is passed at an earlier age " or " until receiving a certificate of proficiency showing that they are fit to benefit by the courses at a technical or other higher

school." One writer would double the number of years during which attendance is compulsory at an evening school for every year lost at the day school, thus, if a child left the day school at 13, two year's attendance at evening school would be required; if at 12, four years. The conditions of compulsion, according to another, should be similar to those for half-time attendance at day schools, viz., the permission to work should depend on evening school attendance.

Six hours per week, or three evenings of two hours each, is the longest time suggested. Others say only two evenings a week, and one writer would have only one evening, but that all the year round. Some would have the hours shorter for girls than boys, and would divide the time each week between general and trade or professional (or, for girls, domestic) education. One writer would make this division according to the standard of general proficiency attained by the child at the day school, and would have him, as far as possible, complete his general education before beginning his special training. Thus, those boys who were up to Standard VII. on leaving the day school would be allowed to devote themselves to commercial or technical subjects after one year devoted to general improvement; those not up to the required standard would be obliged to give two years to general subjects before taking the special courses. The arrangement for girls would be somewhat similar, but domestic subjects would take the place of commercial or technical courses, and would be taken up by the girl at once on joining the evening school, the proportion of time devoted to them varying according to the standard of general knowledge, and to the length of time spent in the evening school.

Other conditions insisted upon are:—

(1) That the normal hours of daily work should be shortened, especially in the case of girls; that overtime should be made illegal for apprentices; and that time spent at evening school should not have to be made up by work at other times.

(2) That the evening schools should be free; or free to the very poor, with a low fee for others.

(3) That the period of compulsory attendance should follow immediately on the day school course. [One writer, on the contrary, would establish a day-school leaving-certificate which should exempt from attendance at evening school for two years, and would then, when the boy had fixed on his trade, require attendance until he could pass an examination in a group of subjects specially bearing on that trade.]

(4) That there should be a graded course of study at evening schools preparing for the technical schools, and scholarships to the latter or to other higher schools.

(5) That there should be a day-school leaving-certificate, awarded by the headmaster, which when shown at the evening school would enable the pupil to be properly placed; and that, evening schools being better graded, the pupils should be sent to those best suited to their needs.

(6) That there should be an evening-school leaving-certificate, and that prizes should be given for progress and efficiency instead of attendance.

(7) That adequate provision should be made for enforcing attendance, independently of the teachers.

(8) That voluntary attendance should be allowed after the legal age for compulsion was passed.

(9) That physical exercises, and (for girls) household management, should form part of the curriculum.

Question 15. *Do you see any signs of increased desire on the part of adults to avail themselves of evening continuation schools in order to make up for deficiencies in their early education?*

Answered by 72 out of 79.

Opinion on this subject is just about equally divided. Though instances of increased keenness are given, it would seem that any desire on the part of adults to avail themselves of evening schools is still confined to a small minority. Adults are said to be shy of coming to school with their juniors, and some writers are of opinion that they would avail themselves of the schools to a greater extent if more were done to arrange separate classes specially suited to their needs. Others, on the contrary, say that even when such arrangements are made, the classes are not always successful. Adults are said by one writer to be too tired after their day's work to care for anything in the evening save sensational amusements; also to be indifferent to anything in the way of self-improvement which will not bring them higher wages. One teacher of ten years' experience in East London says that the interest has decreased except in the case of aliens, mostly Germans and Jews. Adult foreigners in London often attend evening classes to learn English.

Question 16. *Do you think that more should be done to arrange, as part of the evening school system, well illustrated evening courses on history, geography, science, etc., with a special view to the needs of adult students?*

Answered by 71 out of 79.

The answers are, with a few exceptions, in the affirmative. But the difficulty of getting suitable slides is spoken

of and the necessity for thoroughly competent teachers and lecturers. One fault of the evening schools, until lately, has been their too great similarity to the day schools, and more lectures, etc., would help to remove the prejudice thus created against them. One writer pleads for illustrated courses on music as likely to be attractive, especially amongst a Celtic population, and another for courses on citizenship. Great care should be taken that such lectures do not generate into popular magic-lantern shows—the illustrations should be used to supplement definite instruction not to supplant it. They should not be held on the same night as the classes for boys and girls.

Question 17. *Could more be done to grade the evening continuation schools in a given district, according to their different types and standards of work?*

Answered by 63 out of 79.

All but two or three are of opinion that something more could be done in the way of grading schools, though one or two, who are in favour of it in large centres of population, think that in the country it would be impossible, owing to the distances between schools, etc. The question of distance from the school is always somewhat of a difficulty, even in large towns; each school must more or less provide what the immediate neighbourhood requires. The difficulty of classification has been, according to one writer, one of the chief causes of the comparative failure of evening schools, and he would have all boys who leave the day school below a certain standard sent to special evening schools until they have reached it. It is difficult to see how this could be secured without some form of compulsion, and more than one writer is of opinion that the proper grading of evening

schools must go hand in hand with a measure of compulsory attendance. At present the scholars go either to the nearest school, or to the school where their friends go, or to the school they attended as day scholars, or to the school where they know and like a particular teacher.

Question 18. *Have you had experience in combining evening continuation school work with other forms of social and educational effort, e.g., social clubs, University Extension courses, adult schools, etc.?*

Answered by 70 out of 79.

Counting the nine who have not answered as negatives, 64 out of the 79 have had no experience of the kind mentioned. Eight answers are ambiguous; only seven are in the affirmative. Of these, four speak of the usefulness of social clubs. They are said to be more successful than societies with a specific purpose, to be a help in keeping up the attendance at evening schools, and to be especially useful in the case of adults, who will come to the club meetings without any feeling of loss of dignity such as they are apt to experience when they attend evening schools. The Crossley Lads' Club and the Heyrod Street Boys' Club, in Manchester, which combine systematic evening school work with their other activities, are spoken of with high praise for their work both on the intellectual and on the social and moral side.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND SUGGESTIONS.

Several writers, besides answering the above questions, furnished valuable additional information and made various suggestions of interest which are summarised below.

(1) In connection with the question of the encouragement given by employers to their apprentices and work-

people to attend evening schools, one writer emphasises the need for more co-operation between employers and teachers. One of the great difficulties of the teacher, he says, is to get home work done, and if the lads could be encouraged to undertake it by some prospect of advancement in their work, more real good would be done than by the giving of attendance prizes, etc. .

Another writer speaks of the difficulty of home study from the point of view of the scholar, and of the need for providing accommodation for private study, where home lessons could be done with opportunity for getting help on points not understood, and under conditions of quiet and comfort often not obtainable at home.

(2) The failure of the day school to give the children a real desire to learn is emphasised by another.

"To my mind," he says, "one of the great difficulties in attracting students to the evening school begins in the day school. Not for a moment do I advocate a return to payment by results in day schools. But since the downfall of that system there has been a slipping away from exactness on the scholars' part. Also, there has been a great overcrowding of the codes of the past few years, giving the child a smattering of many subjects without any serious attempt to master one. He is hurried the year through, given no time to exercise his own intuitiveness, and leaves without a great desire to proceed. . . . As I have said before, the reason for the failure in the elementary evening schools can be found in the day school. It is there that the child should get a desire to learn."

The lack of a thorough grounding in the day school is dwelt upon by another. In his opinion this has been especially noticeable since individual examination was abolished.

"Under the old system scholars had to acquire a sufficient knowledge of the three R's before they were allowed to proceed from one standard to another; now teachers have freedom of classification . . . and children often move up who under the old system of external individual examination would be compelled to remain in the same standard another year."

He goes on to say that under the present system children are allowed to take extra subjects before this grounding is complete, and pass from stage to stage of these subjects without ever having their knowledge of back work tested.

"The inspection," he continues, "is superficial as compared with the individual examination- the grant depending to a great extent (provided discipline is satisfactory and the staff large) upon excellence of apparatus and equipment. . . . My experience in a science school has been that since the substitution of inspection for examination, instead of commencing in October, as I should, to prepare for science and commercial examinations of the following May and June, it has been necessary, in order to obtain good results, to devote the time from October to Christmas to putting in the groundwork which pupils were supposed to have on reaching my division- the time proving all too short in many cases. The same is seen in Evening Schools: the groundwork has to be supplied, leaving, as the session only lasts during the winter months, little time for additions and development."

(3) The need for more brightness and pleasantness in the evening schools, particularly in the ordinary continuation schools, is urged by another writer.

"If you could see," he says, "some of the dismal rooms in which night classes have to be held, crowded with desks, often without fires and utterly comfortless, you would not be surprised at non-attendance."

Classes, too, in subjects in which individual teaching is essential should be much smaller than is often the case.

(4) The effects of the old system of payment by results in day schools are still, it is said by another, felt in the evening schools. To quote his own words:--

"Boys come along incapable of self-effort, with a certain amount of undigested knowledge, and what is worse, an idea that the teacher is the source of all learning. Earnest teachers, too, often take up evening work with wrong ideas: the old grind of the day school is introduced, the teacher judges of his work by wrong standards and the scholar is soon disgusted. On this question of method the success of evening school work seems to hang. I feel sure that if teachers would hasten slowly and direct the studies of their pupils rather than constitute themselves into lecturers, much better results would follow."

(5) The desirability of introducing a simpler method of registration is evidently strongly felt by teachers. The

present complicated system of registration necessary for grant earning hampers them and causes great waste of time.

(6) With regard to evening schools in country districts, one local organiser of long experience writes:—

“There has been, of late years, a tendency to introduce far too much stiffness into the management of evening schools and to press regulations which may be worked well in towns upon country districts also. I plead for freedom and elasticity in the latter, and for a franker recognition of the fact that where the parson and the schoolmaster do not work, the work will not be done. Elaborate committees are, in country villages, a mistake.”

It is pointed out by another writer that the difficulty of getting teachers in the country is sometimes very great. If a small place, as is most likely, cannot be self-supporting in this respect, it must rely on outsiders, generally teachers from a neighbouring town or village. The train service may very likely be inconvenient for these visiting teachers, and they do not know the young people out of school and get very little hold upon them. The personal interest of teachers who know their scholars is essential in the country as elsewhere.

(7) According to one writer, it should be recognised that the gap between day and evening school is natural. The boy puts away school with other childish things. His hours of work are long, and he feels the strain of the new conditions. Moreover, he does not yet see the use of continuing his education. But later on, competition makes him realise his need. In the opinion of this writer, the only good work done in evening schools is done by students fired by this zeal for getting on.

(8) It is urged by another that some subject of general culture should always be insisted upon in evening schools. Too little attention, it is contended, is given to the broadening of the scholars' outlook.

The following suggestions of the Rev. Spencer J. Gibb, of Stockport, with regard to evening continuation schools, will be read with interest :—

SUGGESTION WITH REGARD TO EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

"The success of continuation schools depends upon the radical reform of elementary education in the day school. At present they can only be partially successful, owing to the very slender foundation upon which it is possible to build.

"Necessary factors in such improvement of elementary education are the following :—

"(1) The concentration of skilful, thorough and intelligent teaching in the elementary schools upon reading, writing and arithmetic.

"Boys at present leave the elementary schools, and leave them with good records, who have so imperfectly assimilated what they have been taught that, although they can read, write and "do sums," they are without taste for reading or any appreciation of good literature; their writing is formless, and they are unable to write a letter or even address an envelope; and they are wholly incapable of applying the arithmetical rules underlying the sums they work to the practical needs of business.

"Concentration, therefore, upon these necessary subjects, to the exclusion of subjects which in the nature of the case can only be glanced at, seems the present wisdom; and in the hands of intelligent teachers such subjects, liberally interpreted, would be adequate instruments of mental development.

"(2) The stern limitation, during school age (under the provisions of the Employment of Children Act), of child labour of such a kind as unfits children to receive the full benefit of education.

"(3) The training of teachers in such keen and discriminating observation of individual pupils as to enable them to determine broadly the department of the working world into which particular boys would enter with the best prospect of success.

"Elementary education being rendered more efficient on these lines, the following suggestions are offered for the organisation of continuation schools :—

"(1) The *general* school exemption age would be fourteen; but exemption would be granted at the discretion of the schoolmaster or of a committee appointed for the purpose of such investigation, in the case of a boy who might before that age have the opportunity of entering upon suitable work, with good prospects, which it might be desirable that he should begin at once.

"(2) A boy leaving school before fourteen, however, would attend compulsorily a night school devoted to the practical teaching of elementary subjects until he had reached the age of fourteen; this

implying also such adjustment by the employer of the boy's working hours as to enable him to attend school without overstrain.

"(3) Leaving school at fourteen, the next year would be occupied in learning practically the routine of the work upon which the boy had entered; and generally attendance at a night school during that year would not be required; but at the discretion of the schoolmaster a boy might be required under certain conditions to attend during that year, or a portion of it, a course in a night school in any elementary subject or subjects in which he had in the day school shown noticeable weakness.

"(4) At fifteen the boy would attend continuation classes devoted to technical or commercial subjects—the course taken up being suggested by his employer.

"Thus there would be two distinct types of continuation schools for boys:—

"(1) Schools in which elementary subjects would be practically taught, in strict continuation of the elementary school course.

"(2) Schools devoted to technical or commercial subjects.

"Useful work might also be done by 'Hobby Schools,' which boys might attend while still in attendance at day school, and in which under direction they might be encouraged to develop their characteristic bents—mechanical and manual work; photography; the collection of such things as boys love to collect; music; drawing; and above all reading."

1. Because during the first year of work it is well for the boy to grow familiar with new surroundings, overcome the strain necessarily involved in making this new departure in life, and learn such practical matters as an intelligent boy would pick up in his daily routine, before being required to study theoretically on the same lines.

CHAPTER VIII.

English Employers and the Education of their Workpeople.

A LETTER was addressed to the chief railway companies of England asking them for information as to the facilities granted to their employees (both clerks and apprentices and workpeople) for attending classes at technical schools, continuation schools or elsewhere for the study of subjects bearing on their daily work. The following four definite questions were asked as an indication of the kind of information desired, and in addition it was stated that an expression of opinion as to the results of the practice would be valued:—

1. To whom are facilities granted?
2. Are apprentices excused from part of their day work in order that they may attend technical classes in the daytime?
3. Is any assistance given towards fees?
4. What are the subjects taken and where?

The letter was addressed to seventeen railway companies and information was furnished by sixteen of these.

A similar inquiry was addressed to 195 firms, representing some of the chief trades and industries of the country, and 67 of these supplied particulars.

The information received from sixteen railway companies and fifty-six firms is tabulated on pp. 266—305 below. The chief points are summarised on pp. 306—8.

Further cases of co-operation between employers of labour and technical institutions are given on pp. 308—317.

NOTES TO TABLES.

TABLE I.

(1) Out of the sixteen Railway Companies, seven excuse day-work, under certain conditions, to apprentices and pupils, to allow of their attending technical classes in the daytime.

(2) Fourteen out of sixteen either give direct assistance towards fees or contribute to the expenses of the classes, so that their employees may attend them either free or at very low fees. In one case the wages of the best apprentices are increased upon the combined reports of the Master of the Technical Classes and the Superintendent of the Workshops.

(3) Special mention should be made of the Mechanics' and Railway Institutes established or largely assisted by some of the great Railway Companies: notably the Mechanics' Institute at Stratford New Town (G. E. Ry.); the Mechanics' Institute at Swindon (G. W. Ry.); the Institutes at Crewe, Wolverton and Earlstown (L. & N. W. Ry.); the Railway Institutes at Gateshead and York (N. E. Ry.); and the Mechanics' Institute at Horwich (L. & Y. Ry.).

(4) Attention should also be called to the arrangements lately entered into between many of the chief Railway Companies and the Victoria University of Manchester, the Liverpool School of Commerce and the London School of Economics, respectively, whereby members of the Companies' staffs are encouraged to attend lectures specially arranged to meet the needs of those engaged in railway work.

TABLE II.

(1) Engineers, shipbuilders, etc.

(a) Out of a total of thirty-four firms, eighteen excuse day-work to apprentices or pupils to allow of their attending technical classes in the daytime, or have done so in exceptional cases. Sometimes one day or one half-day a week is allowed to these apprentices. Sometimes the free time is arranged for on the "sandwich" system, the winter months being spent at the Technical School or College, and the summer months at the works. In other cases a definite period (one term to two years) is allowed off for attendance at College courses.

(b) Ten out of the thirty-four firms grant special facilities for attendance at Evening Classes. These take the form of (1) excuse

from overtime work on the night of the class; (2) permission to leave work early on class nights; (3) permission to come to work late one morning in the week if so many classes are attended.

(c) Help in the matter of class fees, or other similar inducements to attend classes, are offered by twenty-four out of the thirty-four firms, the privileges being sometimes confined to apprentices and pupils, sometimes extended to all employees. The assistance given takes various forms.

(1) Fees paid without any condition.

(2) Fees paid in cases of necessity.

(3) Fees refunded (generally on condition of satisfactory attendance and examination).

(4) Increase of wages and access to drawing office.

(5) Payment for, or loan of, books, instruments and drawing materials.

(6) Scholarships, prizes, etc.

In addition mention should be made of the fact that for thirty-two years (1873-1905) one firm (Messrs. Mather & Platt) maintained their own Technical School, at which all apprentices were obliged (unless following an approved course elsewhere) to attend at a nominal fee of 1s. per subject per session. Although the school has now been given up, the obligation to attend technical classes is still enforced in the case of all apprentices. One other firm, Messrs. Swan, Hunter, and Wigham Richardson, make attendance at approved science and art evening classes a condition of continued employment. Several firms encourage attendance at classes by increased prospects of promotion.

(d) Messrs. Vickers, Sons & Maxim's scheme for co-operation with the Technical Department of Sheffield University and Messrs. Clayton and Shuttleworth's new system of apprenticeship are of special interest.

(2) Other Firms.

(a) Out of a total of twenty-two firms, nine excuse day work to apprentices or other employees to allow of attendance at technical classes in the day-time; six (Messrs. Brunner Mond & Co., Cadbury Bros., Jos. Crosfield & Sons, Debenham & Co., Rowntree & Co. and the United Alkali Company) make attendance at certain classes compulsory for special categories of employees;¹ nearly all the others encourage attendance at evening classes.

1. The particulars of the arrangements made by these firms will be found above.

(b) Seventeen out of the twenty-two give help in the matter of fees or offer other similar inducements to attend classes.

(c) Special mention should be made of the various facilities for further self-improvement placed within reach of their employees by Messrs. Cadbury Bros., Jos. Crosfield & Sons, Johnson Bros., Lever Bros., and Rowntree & Co. At Messrs. Cadbury Bros., physical training is compulsory for all boys under 16 and girls under 15. At Messrs. Crosfield's, the boys and girls are taught to swim. The Domestic Economy School for girls established by Messrs. Powntree, in their Haxby Road Factory at York is an educational experiment of great interest. Messrs. Lever Bros. established and for several years maintained a Technical Institute entirely at their own cost. They now lend the building to the local Education Authority. Before the establishment of the Norwich Technical School, Messrs. J. & J. Colman for many years maintained classes for the benefit of their employees.

The scheme for the education of girl apprentices to the dressmaking, which is being tried by the London Education Committee with the help of Messrs. Debenham, is also of special interest.

The Association of Technical Institutions issued in December, 1905, a valuable report as to the co-operation of employers and technical institutions. This contains several additional instances of facilities granted by employers to their apprentices. The particulars given below are taken from this report, supplemented, in one or two cases, by information received from other sources. Following the scheme of the Association's Report the particulars are arranged alphabetically under towns.

[N.B.—As the names of individual firms are not always given in the report it is possible that one here and there may be included twice over—once in the table, once below.]

Barrow-in-Furness.

Messrs. Vickers, Sons and Maxim co-operate in the education of apprentices with the Barrow-in-Furness Technical School. All apprentices are advised to become students at the school, the inducements offered being leave to compete, under certain conditions, for entry into the drawing office, and, if a four years' course is taken and regularly

attended, extra allowances for successes in the different subjects. Those who attend evening classes are allowed to begin work at 7 instead of 6 on mornings following classes, for three days a week.

Permission is also granted to apprentices, who have pursued a satisfactory course of evening study, to attend a technical college, the time spent at college counting towards the completion of their apprenticeship, on condition that, at the end of the course, the apprentices will, if required, agree to serve the firm for a period equivalent to that spent at college, regular wages being paid to them by the firm during this period of service. Some 720 of the firm's apprentices attend the classes at the technical school.

Birmingham.

Afternoon courses for engineering apprentices were started at the Municipal Technical School in October, 1904. The classes are held on three afternoons a week, from 2-30 to 5-30. In February, 1905, thirteen students employed by six local firms were attending one, two or three afternoons a week, and most of them were attending certain evening classes as well. Admission is restricted to students actually engaged by engineering firms and recommended for admission by their employers.

Bolton.

A certain number of apprentices attend the Technical School two days a week and work three days a week in the mills. They all come from the Fine Spinner's Combine, and are all youths who have had a good secondary education. Their fees are paid by the Company.

A large number of textile and engineering firms in Bolton offer scholarships to their apprentices, tenable at evening classes in science and technology. The scholar-

ship carries with it books for each subject taken up. Apprentices pay their own fees, but these are returned if they make 75 per cent. of total possible attendances in each class and if conduct and progress are satisfactory. About 130 apprentices take advantage of these arrangements.

Bradford.

By arrangement with the firms composing the district branch of the Engineering Employers' Federation, apprentices who have attended the three years' day college course will be accepted by such firms to complete their workshop experience until twenty-one years of age, the time spent at the college being included as a part of their apprenticeship.

With a view to providing a special course of instruction for the apprentices in their shops, the same firms have made an arrangement with the Bradford Technical College whereby apprentices are permitted to attend the College one half-day a week without loss of wages, the fees (£3 per session per student) being paid by the employers, who, in deserving cases, provide books and instruments as well. Apprentices are also required to attend on two evenings a week classes forming part of the course, the fees (10s. per session) being paid by the students, but remitted by the employer at the end of the session if a satisfactory report is obtained. In really deserving cases the fees are paid by the employers in the first instance. The complete course covers five years and the student who succeeds in passing the qualifying examinations is allowed, during the last year of his apprenticeship, to attend the College as a regular day student in order to study some special branch of engineering work. During this time he receives the usual wages and the firm pays his fees. Reports of pro-

gress are sent regularly to employers and examinations are held in each subject at the close of the session. So far the scheme is working well and results are encouraging. Some 60 or 70 apprentices participate in it.

Other Apprentices. In other departments of the Technical College (textile industries, chemistry and dyeing) there have been several instances of local firms paying fees for promising apprentices to attend day classes, but no general scheme has been arranged.

At the *School of Art* there is a class composed of apprentices in the painting and decorating trade, in which the Association of Masters and the majority of the masters individually take a great interest. Many send their apprentices to day classes five afternoons a week for one year; the apprentices also attend three evenings a week during this year, and until the end of their apprenticeship. The masters pay the wages of those attending day classes at the same rate as if they were in the shops, and they are admitted to day classes without fee. In many cases the masters pay the fees of painter-decorator apprentices and journeymen who attend in the evening only, and insist on their attendance. The Masters' Association also gives £10 in prizes to evening-class students.

There are a few cases in other trades where masters send apprentices to day classes, and it is hoped to extend the system of day teaching to other trades.

It is noted that apprentices who attend day classes make far greater progress than those who attend in the evening only.

Coventry.

Day classes are held at the Technical Institute in engineering subjects and form a three years' course, consisting of six hours per week for a session of forty weeks each

year. Each student attends one morning and one afternoon a week.

Derby.

Messrs. H. and J. Coles, engineers, give on the result of the College examination (Derby Technical College) a bonus of £1 to a student in Class I., and 10s. to a student in Class II., the maximum bonus obtainable in one year being £3. The students, who are trade apprentices, attend evening classes. The firm pays fees and provides materials, including books and instruments.

Messrs. Bemrose and Sons, printers, pay fees, provide some materials and pay examination fees for their apprentices at evening classes.

Certain other employers (lace manufacturers, printers, etc.) pay fees for apprentices.

Halifax.

At the Halifax Municipal Technical School there are two schemes in operation for students engaged or intending to engage in engineering industries:— (1) Boys enter the Technical School at fourteen and spend two or three years in the apprenticeship course. The number of hours instruction is thirty per week during a session of forty weeks. The employers count the time spent at the school as part of their apprenticeship. (2) Apprentices attend school one day a week. They are admitted at sixteen and pay their own fees. Employers do not deduct anything from their wages for time spent at school.

House painters allow apprentices to attend the school two half-days per week without loss of wages. They must also attend three evenings during the winter session. As a rule they pay their own fees.

Leeds.

Eighteen engineering employers have agreed, in response to a suggestion from the Committee of the Institute

of Science, Art and Literature, that apprentices attending evening classes shall, unless in exceptional circumstances, be exempted from overtime; and five out of the eighteen have expressed their willingness to consider applications from apprentices requiring to leave work earlier on the days fixed for attending evening classes.

Leicester.

Boot and Shoe Trade. At the Leicester Technical School there is a full day course extending over two years. The departmental trade instruction is given in the afternoons, and employers send students on one, two, or perhaps three afternoons a week for special subjects.

Building Trade. Apprentices are sent by employers for one afternoon per week. At present carpenters and joiners only are taken, but arrangements are to be made in future for bricklayers.

House Painters. Apprentices come for a full day a week during the four months (November, December, January and February) when trade is slackest.

Hosiery. Apprentices attend two afternoons a week during the winter.

London.

Five engineering firms in the neighbourhood of the Battersea Polytechnic have agreed to encourage and advise apprentices to attend classes at the Polytechnic or elsewhere. Of these the Projectile Company makes attendance at classes a condition of employment; and Messrs. Simpson and Co., of Pimlico, give a special increase of wages based on the report from the Polytechnic and progress at the works. The number of apprentices attending the Battersea Polytechnic under this arrangement, during the session 1905-6, was 53. Messrs. Sélincourt and Sons, wholesale dress and mantle makers, of Pimlico, give their

girl apprentices the opportunity of attending evening classes, specially arranged to meet their needs, at the Battersea Polytechnic. The girls are allowed to leave work an hour earlier in order to attend classes of two hours once a week, without loss of wages. The employers pay half the class fees, provide material for a dress or coat, and offer prizes for the best work in each class. During the session 1905-6, sixty-three apprentices were attending six special classes.

The Borough Polytechnic Institute has an arrangement with the Master Printers' Association whereby the members of the Association allow their apprentices time off one day a week to attend an early evening class, which meets at 5-30 p.m.

By arrangement with the employers in the letterpress and lithographic printing trades, about 75 apprentices attend day classes at the St. Bride's Foundation Institute, and about 48 attend evening classes. The class fee is generally paid by the employer, and leave of absence from work is granted without loss of wages.

The Woolwich Polytechnic has an arrangement with the Woolwich Arsenal whereby some 250 trade apprentices in the Arsenal attend classes partly day, partly evening. Leave of absence for day classes is granted without loss of wages, and fees are returned to those students whose attendance and progress is satisfactory.

Manchester.

At the Manchester School of Technology a special course of day instruction has been arranged to meet the needs of engineering apprentices, of whom 83 were in attendance during the session 1905-6. The classes are held on Mondays, from 9-15 a.m. to 1-15 p.m. and from 2 to 6 p.m. (eight hours in all). They continue throughout the

whole session of forty weeks, and are arranged for first and second year students. The course comprises mathematics, engineering lectures, mechanical laboratory exercises and engineering drawing. The apprentices are not expected to attend evening classes, and consequently have time for homework and reading. The employers pay wages as if at work, and count the time as part of the apprenticeship.

House painters and decorators also attend special day classes at the School, and some 150 apprentices attend evening classes by arrangement with the employers.

Preston.

Messrs. Horrockses, Crewdson and Co. pay the fees for any of their employees (men or women) who desire to attend evening classes at the Harris Institute.

Rochdale.

Engineering apprentices from three firms are released from work early on two days a week without loss of wages, in order to attend afternoon classes at the Rochdale Technical School.

Sunderland.

At the Sunderland Technical College two schemes—one for day, and one for evening, students—are in operation. The scheme for day students has been subscribed to by twenty-seven shipbuilding and engineering firms in Sunderland and district. Some 40 or 50 students attended the classes during the session 1904-5, and the number is rapidly increasing.

Messrs. George Clark Ltd., Southwick Engine Works, is the firm chiefly concerned in the scheme for evening students.

The main principles of the day scheme were agreed upon at conferences, held in 1903, between the associations

of shipbuilders and engineers of Sunderland and district and representatives of the Technical College. In the first place it was laid down:—

“That the essential principle of the system of training engineer apprentices consists of a combination of practical training in the firm’s workshops and drawing-office and a scientific training in the technical college.”

The chief features of the scheme are as follows:—

1. That two years shall be spent by the apprentice, after leaving school and before beginning the college course, in the workshops of the firm.

2. That during those two years the apprentice shall attend evening classes in mathematics and other preliminary engineering subjects under the control of the Technical College.

3. That each year a number of free apprentice-studentships, not exceeding twenty-five, shall be offered for competition among apprentices employed by shipbuilders and engineers of Sunderland and district who satisfy certain conditions as to age, length of time served in the shops, ability and conduct, and attendance at evening classes. The studentships to be awarded on the results of a competitive examination in subjects of general education (including mathematics, drawing and English) held at the Technical College.

4. During the three or four years following their selection the apprentice-students will be allowed leave of absence from the works to attend day classes at the College from October 1st, to March 31st each year. No College fee will be charged; wages will be increased at the same rate as if they were continuously at the works; and the time spent at College will count as part of their apprenticeship. During the summer months special facilities for becoming familiar with all the stages of the

work will, so far as possible, be arranged for these apprentices by the firms concerned.

5. The continuation of the privileges accorded by the scheme is subject to satisfactory work and progress, both in the College and the workshop.

Wolverhampton.

The Electric Construction Co. Ltd., Bushbury Engineering Works, recommends its young employees to attend evening classes during the winter months at the Wolverhampton Education Committee Schools, for instruction in subjects bearing on their daily work. A certain number of scholarships, awarded on the results of the session's work, both in the schools and the shops, and covering class fees for the following year, are given by the firm, and attendance at evening classes will be taken into consideration when questions of promotion arise.

CHAPTER IX.

The Half-Time System in the Textile Trades.

"HALF-TIME" is the name given to a system under which children may at the age of 12 (in agricultural districts at the age of 11) claim partial exemption from school in order to go to work during certain hours of the day. The question of half-time in the textile trades is only a part—but perhaps the most important part of the larger problem of child labour. The problem of elementary education is bound up with an industrial problem; and neither of these can be neglected in a work on continuation schools. When should elementary education cease? when should wage-earning begin? The solution of the problem of continuation schools ultimately depends upon what answers are given to these questions. It is just because the system known as half-time tries to find a single solution to a double difficulty by attempting to satisfy the rival claims of Education and Industry, that it is dealt with in the present Chapter. But the phrase "rival claims" suggests an antithesis which is perhaps unreal; and if it could be shown that there is no necessity for the employment of children during their elementary school-life, then there would be no problem to be solved. Hence in testing the merits or defects of the half-time system, it will not only be necessary to ask whether that solution is a good one, but whether any solution in the nature of a compromise is necessary; whether, in fact, partial exemption cannot be abolished without serious detriment to industry.

But there is another reason why an enquiry into half-time is of importance in the present context. It is im-

portant from a strictly educational point of view. Do the evening continuation schools gain or suffer from the system? What are the effects of the attendance of half-timers on the organisation and general school-life of the elementary schools? What are the effects on the half-timers themselves of a life divided between the school and the workshop? These are some of the questions which will have to be answered in the course of the inquiry before a judgment on the system as a whole can be formulated.

Finally a word of explanation is required as to why the range of inquiry is limited to Lancashire and Yorkshire. There are three reasons for this. In the first place four out of every five of the total number of half-timers in England and Wales are employed in the textile industries of these counties; secondly, the numbers are here so large that the system has local consequences of great social importance; thirdly, it is in these districts that legislative interference with the system has always met with the keenest opposition.

The investigation, of which this Chapter is the outcome, was carried out during March and April, 1907, in the chief textile manufacturing centres of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Several schools in each of the towns of Bolton, Rochdale, Burnley, Blackburn and Bradford were visited; 1,200 half-timers were seen at their lessons and three hundred of these were personally cross-examined. Teachers, directors, and other officials of education committees, eight mill-managers, four secretaries of operative trade unions, a "knocker-up" and the head-salesman of a leading Lancashire firm of cotton spinners and weavers were approached on the question. Six factories were visited in order that half-timers might be seen at their different employments, and the conditions under which they worked, might be studied. The views expressed are

based partly upon expert local opinion and partly upon the personal observations of the writer.

A half-time scholar is defined in the annual Code of Regulations issued by the Board of Education as follows:

"The term 'partial exemption scholar' means a scholar who is certified by or on behalf of the Local Education Authority to be qualified by age and attainments or previous attendance for employment in conformity with the bye-laws."

This definition is the outcome of a series of enactments with regard to school attendance passed during the last 36 years. The first of these, the Elementary Education Act of 1870, empowered every school board to pass from time to time bye-laws as to school attendance. Freedom to frame the bye-laws within certain wide limitations was granted to school boards, and the principle so established has been observed in all subsequent legislation. The amending Act of 1876 forbade the employment of children under ten and so fixed a minimum age-limit at which children could become wage-earners. The Act also declared that no person shall take into his employment any child who, being of the age of ten years and upwards (*i.e.*, until 14) has not obtained a certificate either of his proficiency in reading, writing and arithmetic,¹ or of previous due attendance² at a certified efficient school.

The Act of 1880 by declaring it obligatory upon all local authorities to frame bye-laws made attendance at school up to ten years of age compulsory for the whole country. Under these bye-laws a certificate of previous due attendance was only given for total exemption to a child between the ages of thirteen and fourteen, while partial exemption was granted to a child between the ages of 10 and 13 on

1. The standard to be that of Standard IV. or any higher standard.

2. Two hundred and fifty attendances after five years of age in not more than two schools during each year for five years, whether consecutive or not.

his passing a special labour examination, the standard of which was fixed by the bye-laws. Subsequent legislation (if the Act of 1893 which raised the school age to 11 be excepted) introduced no fundamental change until 1899. The Act of that year (associated with the name of Sir W. S. Robson) raised the school age to 12 and made it possible for children from 12 to 13 to qualify for partial exemption by obtaining an attendance certificate.¹ The attendances required were 300² in not more than two schools after five years of age for each of five years whether consecutive or not. The object of the Act was twofold. In the first place, by raising the age for partial exemption, its intention was to diminish the number of half-timers and thus to relieve the schools of some of the ill-effects which the half-time system entailed. These ill-effects had been set forth in the evidence given before the Royal Commission on Labour which sat from 1891 to 1894. Secondly, it brought the method of qualifying for partial exemption into harmony with the new methods of school inspection. In 1890 the system known as "payment by results" (*i.e.*, the giving of Government grants to schools for proficiency of scholars in individual examination) had been abolished and grants on average attendance substituted. With its abolition schools were freed from the evils of cramming for examinations and greater latitude in choice of curriculum was given to the teachers.

But in those districts where many or most of the scholars were intending to become half-timers, the labour examina-

1. For children engaged in agriculture, the local authority may fix thirteen as the age for total exemption and eleven for partial exemption in the case of children who have reached the standard fixed by the bye-law of the district.

2. The Robson Act allowed the attendances for total exemption to remain at 250. This number was raised to 350 by the Act of 1900. Thus for one year (1900-1) a scholar could obtain total exemption for 250 attendances, while 300 were required for partial exemption.

tion was producing exactly the same results as the old individual examinations for grant. There seemed to be good reason, therefore, for introducing an alternate arrangement. The minimum of 300 attendances, however, was too low. It means that a child has only to make 8 attendances per week for five years out of seven. Although local education authorities are empowered to pass school attendance bye-laws which make no provision for half-timers, statistics show that only two out of forty-four Lancashire Committees, Bootle and Widnes, avail themselves of this power.

Since the requisite number of attendances are obtained by the average scholar as a matter of course and since application for exemption can be made at any time, it is not surprising to find that only a small percentage of children continue to qualify for exemption in the old way. The following table gives the number of half-timers in Bolton who qualified in either way during the last two years.

HALF-TIMERS IN BOLTON.

How Qualified	Year ending December 31st, 1905		Year ending December 31st, 1906	
By attendance -	Standard 1609		Standard 1605	
By standard -	IV.	34	IV.	31
	V.	36	V.	24
	VI.	3	VI.	2
	VII.	1	Total	57
	Total 74			
Totals - - - - -	1683		1663	

At the time of the passing of the Robson Act (1899) the half-time system was in rapid decline. According to Board of Education returns (which though not absolutely correct are useful for comparison) the falling off in the number of half-timers during the ten years 1890-1900 was equivalent to 45 per cent. The Table given below shows the

fall in numbers for the chief cotton manufacturing towns, between 1891 and 1901.

Figures showing decrease in number of half-timers in the cotton industry in 19 typical Lancashire towns in 1891 and 1901.

Town.	No. of half timers in 1891.	No. of half timers in 1901.
Burnley	3539	1392
Accrington	1536	715
Rochdale	2625	1011
Bolton	3519	1643
Nelson	1141	563
Preston	3537	1204
City of Manchester.....	863	196
Salford	753	182
Stockport	1694	1010
Oldham	3912	1386
Clitheroe	341	157
Great Harwood.....	160	255
Heywood	931	448
Hyde	381	279
Leigh	1043 (1893)..	522
Radcliffe	553	333
Haslingden	952	334
Blackburn	5147	2528
Rawtenstall	1556	496

The above table is taken from Prof. S. J. Chapman's "Reply to the Report of the Tariff Commission on the Cotton Industry."

This decline may be ascribed to various causes. The school age for partial exemption had been raised from 10 to 11 in 1893; parents found it troublesome to make the necessary arrangements at the time of entering their children for the labour examination, and improvements in machinery were constantly diminishing the need for the less

skilled forms of labour. But the decline ceased in 1900. Many towns including Ashton-under-Lyne, Clitheroe, Lancaster, Preston, Rochdale, Stockport, Wigan and Bradford show a progressive increase in the number of half-timers. The diminution in the number of half-timers in the other towns engaged in the textile industries during the period 1903—6 is to be attributed not to the working of the Robson Act but partly to the depression of trade during those years and partly to improvements in machinery.

The recent return of good trade has been accompanied by a corresponding increase in the numbers everywhere. Yearly returns for the last eleven years and monthly returns for the last 12 months of the number of half-timers in typical textile manufacturing towns are given below.

HALF-TIME RETURNS FROM TYPICAL TEXTILE TOWNS.

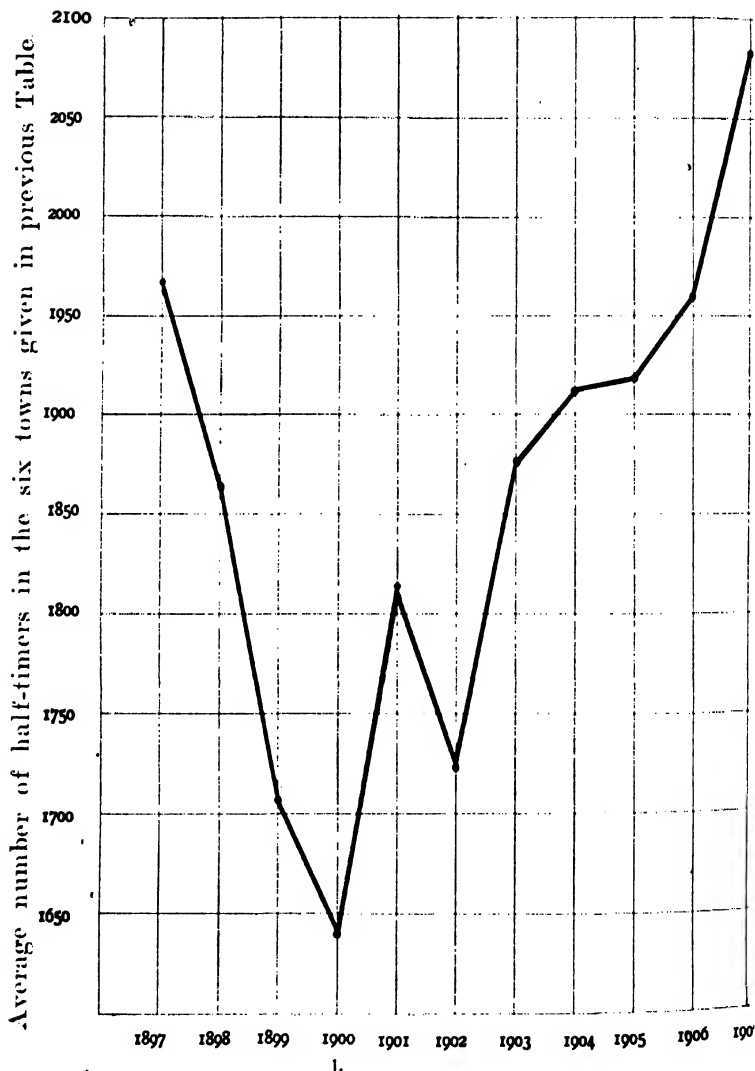
Towns.	1897—1907.												(March).
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.		
Blackburn	2,673	2,783	2,592	2,300	2,528	2,337	2,110	2,110	2,044	1,957	1,931		
Bolton	1,750	1,875	1,800	1,711	1,618	1,609	1,561	1,379	1,515	1,436	1,626		
Bradford	2,364	2,211	1,869	2,198	3,041	2,998	4,327	4,842	4,742	5,050	5,130		
Burnley	2,219	1,922	1,926	1,773	1,313	1,303	1,214	1,199	1,326	1,393	1,525		
Oldham	1,391	1,181	1,148	1,206	1,386	1,216	1,141	996	1,091	1,109	1,346		
Rochdale	1,381	1,187	917	690	982	939	915	838	803	807	919		
Totals	11,978	11,159	10,252	9,878	10,868	10,402	11,268	11,464	11,521	11,752	12,479		
Averages	1,996	1,860	1,709	1,646	1,811	1,734	1,878	1,911	1,920	1,959	2,080		

Towns.	April, 1906—March, 1907.												March.
	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.		
Blackburn ¹ ...	1,983	1,987	1,990	1,953	1,932	1,848	1,839	1,863	1,860	1,914	1,921	1,931	
Bolton ...	1,454	1,453	1,384	1,405	closed	1,410	1,476	1,485	1,487	1,561	1,590	1,626	
Bradford ...	4,970	5,030	5,040	closed	5,028	4,981	5,050	5,053	5,073	5,072	5,134	5,130	
Burnley ...	1,381	1,383	1,370	1,352	1,355	1,369	1,410	1,464	1,506	1,468	1,518	1,525	
Oldham...	1,269	1,229	1,193	1,230	1,214	1,192	1,188	1,210	1,207	1,265	1,318	1,348	
Rochdale ...	876	891	933	921	937	901	894	903	903	900	928	919	
Totals ...	11,873	11,973	11,910	—	—	11,701	11,857	11,978	12,036	12,180	12,409	12,479	
Averages ...	1,979	1,995	1,985	—	—	1,950	1,976	1,996	2,006	2,030	2,068	2,080	

1. Blackburn has a rapidly declining school-population; the birth-rate per thousand has steadily declined from 41 in 1871 to 23·5 in 1904. Reasons for this are given in Fabian Tract 131, by Mr. Sidney Webb.

2. Bradford rescinded in 1902 the bye-law granting total exemption by attendance. No special instruction is given in the school to meet the needs of the Standard VII. Labour Examination. The consequence is that scholars take advantage of the half-time exemption by attendance at twelve and go half-time from 12—14 years of age.

DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF HALF-TIMERS IN BLACKBURN, BOLTON, BURNLEY, OLDHAM AND ROCHDALE FROM 1897—1907.



1. In 1900 the Robson Act came into force.

The half-time system has so far been described only from the legal standpoint in order to make clear the present state of the law and to estimate the effects which legislation has had upon the number of half-timers employed. I propose now to approach the question from the social and educational standpoint, and, as a preliminary, to describe at some length the environment and daily life of a half-timer who works in a cotton factory or woollen mill.

The usual daily time-table of a half-timer is as follows: Sometime between 4.45 and 5.30 a.m. the whole family is awakened by an alarm clock or more frequently by the "knocker-up." This man (usually an old factory operative but sometimes a tradesman) carrying a long pole to one end of which a bunch of wires is attached, visits each customer in turn and rattles a bed room window until a preconcerted signal announces that the occupant is awake. He charges 2d. and 3d. a week to each customer for the service. The half-timer has just time to take a little bread and butter and tea (which has often been left to "stew" overnight in the oven) before hurrying in wooden-soled "clogs" to the factory in order to be there before the bell rings at six.¹

A long two hours² in the spinning room, the weaving shed or at the knotting benches are spent under the direction of the *master* or *mistress*. These are ordinary adult workpeople who engage, pay, teach the trade to, superintend and dismiss any non-adult workers under their charge.

At eight comes the breakfast interval of half-an-hour when (unless the home is very near to the factory) food,

1. The older workpeople are "pennied" and "twopenced," i.e., fined 1d. or 2d. if they are only a minute or two late.

2. The half-timers often described the time between 6 a.m. and 8 a.m. as a long two hours; it seemed as long as the other four from 8.30 to 12.30.

brought from the home in a tin box, is eaten in the stuffy room where they (the children) have just been working. The next four hours are again spent at work. After the dinner interval (12.30—2 p.m.) the half-timers go to afternoon school for another $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours. It is not surprising that they are too tired to do school-work or even to play games (unless, curiously, it is football) for they have already had six hours of toil. This routine is reversed in alternate weeks, and the half-timer goes to school in the morning and to work in the afternoon. The evenings are spent in various ways, generally in some form of recreation, such as playing football in the open spaces, going to music-halls and other places of entertainment, or wandering aimlessly about the streets. It is only in a small percentage of cases that the evening is spent in domestic work, at the evening continuation school or in reading at home. The usual bed-time is 9 p.m.

Such in outline is the daily life of the half-timer. His work in the factory may be of various kinds. He may be employed as a little-piecer, a doffer or a bobbin-ligger in the spinning rooms, as a tenter in the weaving shed or as a knotter at the knotting benches. Spinning is the final process by means of which cotton is pulled out and twisted into the form of thread. The machinery used is known as a spinning jenny and consists of two parts, the frame and the carriage. The frame contains the supply of cotton (wound upon bobbins in thick coils) which is drawn out and twisted into threads and afterwards wound into reels known as "cops." In the drawing-out process the threads often break and it is the duty of the little-piecer to run with the carriage and "piece" them together so that the thread in the cop is continuous. The doffers work behind the frames and replace any of the big-bobbins which have become empty. The bobbin-liggers (*i.e.*, bobbin-layers)

bring up and "lay" a plentiful supply of the full-bobbins on the top of the frame.

The temperature of the spinning rooms is 90°F. in winter and 100°F. in summer. This high temperature of the atmosphere, combined with excessive humidity, causes the fibres of the cotton to stick together and makes it possible to spin them into exceedingly fine threads. In consequence of this heat only the lightest of clothing is worn by the workpeople. The dress of the men and boys consists of calico drawers and shirt; while the women discard their ordinary outer clothing and substitute a grey calico overall. In addition to the damp heat the air is charged with an all pervading smell of oil. There is oil everywhere, and the oily slippery floor makes it necessary for all to go barefoot.

In the weaving-shed the threads made in the spinning rooms are woven into cloth by means of looms. Those threads that run the length of the cloth are called the warp; the others which run across them at right angles, the weft. The warp threads are hundreds of yards in length; the weft threads, varying in length from 28 to 72 inches, are inserted by means of a cop in a shuttle which is thrown to and fro in the loom as the threads of the warp move up and down to form the texture. The work of the little tenter is to see that none of the warp threads break and to shuttle cops (*i.e.*, insert cops on the spindles of the shuttles). Each shuttle has an eyelet through which the thread passes, and before a cop is completely shuttled the thread must be drawn through this eyelet by a rapid drawing in of the breath. The weaving shed, though comparatively cool, has its own peculiar discomfort in the shape of a deafening clang and clatter which drowns even the loudest shouting and makes the use of a simple sign language among the weavers indispensable. The noise is caused by the mechanism of the loom jerking the shuttle across.

At the knotting benches sit rows of nimble-fingered knotters whose business it is to tie knots on the fringes of towels, table cloths and quilts. This requires small fingers and the manufacturers state that the young half-timer is absolutely necessary to this branch of the trade. As the knotters become older they are drafted off to other branches, weaving being generally chosen. In the woollen mills the conditions are better, as the machinery works much more slowly and the temperature need not be so high.

Most half-timers in the woollen industry work in the spinning rooms as bobbin-liggers, doffers and sweepers-out. They are not strong enough for the large woollen looms until the age of 16 is reached. Many of the boys who begin work in the spinning room afterwards become dyers, wool-sorters and wool-combers.

The system of piece-work which obtains throughout the whole of the textile trades forces the workers to acquire great dexterity and surprising quickness. They rarely stop for a rest; for inaction generally means loss of wage. A group of half-timers in the Baillie Street Schools, Rochdale, when asked if they had any time for rest in the factory answered, "No we've got to be spry or else we are sworn at." What would happen if you fell asleep in the factory? "We should very soon be kicked up," was the answer. One lad said that he "often stood on one leg to give the other a rest."

All evidence tends to show that the physical strain is considerable; but the health of the half-timers suffers also in other ways. Certain complaints, prevalent among the workers, are directly traceable to particular processes. From the point of view of health, the spinning room is worse than any other department. The dust and fluff (called "fly") from the unfinished cotton are the cause of asthma, and the heated atmosphere produces a kind of

low fever known as mill-sickness. In the weaving sheds the sucking up of the weft causes bad teeth and the noise of the machinery sooner or later affects the hearing. Complaints such as these are the more easily contracted when, as is often the case, the half-timers, as well as the adult workers, are in an anæmic condition.¹

The causes of anaemia must be sought for partly in the early upbringing. Many of the children in the textile districts suffer from bad or improper feeding during infancy. If the mother² works in a factory all day, the child is put out to nurse and brought up on the bottle and the meals given to it during childhood are often hurriedly prepared. For example it was found that 166 of the mothers of children attending the Furthergate Council School, Blackburn, went out to regular employment ten hours a day. Since the average attendance at the school is only 471, it may be inferred that at least half the children were brought up in the way described.³

The following tables giving the relative heights and weights of half-timers and day scholars in Bolton were prepared by Mr. F. Wilkinson the director of education for the borough. The same weighing and measuring machines were used throughout. All the half timers in Bolton of the ages shown were taken; the selection of full-timers or day scholars was made by taking the requisite number of names in rotation order from the alphabetical list of

1. The system of medical inspection seems to be lax and inadequate. Stunted children and even one who was suffering from hernia were seen who had been passed by the doctor without demur. A headmaster in Blackburn had the utmost difficulty in preventing a mentally defective child from being sent to the mill as a half-timer.

2. According to the Census of 1901 there were 196,898 males and 332,233 females employed in the cotton industry; included in these numbers are 14,663 boys and 18,201 girls of ages 10-14 years. In the woollen industry there were 89,671 males and 122,069 females; boys and girls under 14 years of age numbered respectively 6,253 and 6,612.

3. An interesting point in connection with this school is that facilities have to be given during each school period for scholars to return home and replenish the fire.

HEIGHTS AND WEIGHTS OF BOYS IN BOLTON. TABLE OF HEIGHTS.

Full-time Scholars.

Numbers taken. Day-scholars, aged 12 years 6 months...	Average Height in inches.	Half-time Scholars.		Average Height in inches.
		Numbers taken. Half-time Scholars, aged 12 years 6 months, after working for 6 months	Numbers taken. Half-time Scholars, aged 12 years 9 months, after working 9 months	
42	55½ (normal 55½)	42	55	55 (normal 55½)
40	55½	40	55	55 (normal 55½)
39	55½	39	55½	55
32	56	32	54½	54½
32	57½ (normal 57½)	32	54½	54½
		32	56½	56½ (normal 57½)

TABLE OF WEIGHTS.

Numbers taken. Day-scholars, aged 12 years 6 months...	Average Weight in lbs.	Half-time Scholars.		Average Weight in lbs.
		Numbers taken. Half-time Scholars, aged 12 years 6 months, after working for 6 months	Numbers taken. Half-time Scholars, aged 12 years 9 months, after working 9 months	
42	74½ (normal 77½)	42	73	73 (normal 77½)
40	76	40	74	74
39	73½	39	69½	69½
32	74½	32	73	73
32	81½ (normal 83)	32	78½	78½ (normal 83)

1. The normals given are those of Dr. C. Roberts, of London.

scholars, and seeing that the ages exactly corresponded. Similar confirmatory results have been obtained by Archdeacon Wilson¹ in Rochdale, by Dr. Torrop¹ in Heywood, and by Dr. Crowley in Bradford.

The results show that a distinct physical deterioration sets in immediately a child goes to work half-time.

Other ill effects of half-time employment are less permanent in character but perhaps even more potent in their consequences. To say that the half-timer loses one half his school education at an age when he most needs educational discipline, is only to begin to state the disadvantages. Teachers seem to be agreed that afternoon school is very little use for half-timers. After six hours work, the children are too exhausted to learn and, in summer time especially, often fall asleep. Mr. A. R. Pickles, M.A., President of the National Union of Teachers, and Headmaster of the Burnley Wood Council School, says:

"Half-timers are undoubtedly duller; there is no comparison with the full-time children; it is painful to see the conscientious efforts they make to breast the tape with the other children."

Mr. Draycott, Headmaster of the Pikes Lane Council School, Bolton, says:

"Generally speaking, as the afternoon wears on they become very tired and inclined to be sleepy. Indeed at times some of them actually fall asleep. The school lessons become irksome to them; very few of them ever take much interest in school work."

Mr. Whittick, Ex-President of the Half-time Council states:

"The half-timers are not naturally duller, but deficiency of teaching causes a steady deterioration, and they fall back in the class. They very often show signs of fatigue, much being dependent on the weather."

If it be objected that the opinions quoted apply only to afternoon instruction and that in the morning school there

1. See the "Children's Labour Question," a reprint of articles contributed to the "Daily News" by Mr. Clement Edwards, M.P. "Daily News" Office, 1899, o.p.

should be a complete absence of mental inertia due to over work, the reply is that the attention is interfered with in other ways. It is not merely a question of fatigue. The half-timer is prematurely occupied with thoughts of wage-earning. He feels that his school life has passed; and with it school interests have passed also. The nature of this change in character is indicated in the following observations.

Mr. T. P. Sykes, M.A., Ex-President of the National Union of Teachers states that

"The half-timers become clever at repartee and in the use of 'mannish' phrases which sound clever when they dare use them. They lose their childish habits, stop playing at marbles, spend much of their time with hands in pockets at street corners, and though they play football as vigorously as the others they will not take part in any other game."

Mr. Draycott says:

"They domineer over other children, and although it can hardly be said that they lose their child-like habits, they are fond of aping older people. Some of the boys commence to smoke and to use bad language, and girls become extremely rough in their play. It is very sad to observe the great change that comes over girls in particular within a few weeks of their going half-time. Girls who were models of neatness of attire and personal appearance, and whose conduct was modest and becoming--most lovable children, are suddenly transformed into loud-voiced, coarse, vulgar girls with their finer instincts blunted."

This behaviour, variously described as "owd-fashioned" (precocious) and "straight-forrad" often degenerates into vulgarity, pertness and even insolence. The self-importance of the half-timer is marked by his substituting a muffler for a collar; and by his contracting the mannish habits of swearing and smoking. As to the girls many women teachers state that a peculiar look in the eye betrays a certain loss of delicacy and reserve.

But it is not only the half-timer himself who suffers; the whole school is affected by his presence. If the half-timers are present in large numbers in a class, repetition of the lessons is necessary in order to catch both the morning and afternoon sets, with the result that the day-scholars

have to mark time in the meanwhile. Thus the presence of half-timers in the ordinary classes keeps back the rest of the children. If on the other hand the half-timers are grouped by themselves in a separate class, they may be themselves in such different stages of mental development that the educational evils of imperfect classification ensue in another form.

As Mr. Whittick says:

"The half-time system is the chief hindrance to the extension of the curriculum of the upper classes of the primary school—the only school likely to be attended by the majority of the children of the country. The mixing of half-time and day-scholars in the higher classes—a common practice—is an evil; it hinders and disheartens an earnest class teacher and makes the best day-scholars mark time. To make separate provision for half-timers is to recognise and perpetuate an evil system."

A unique solution of the difficulty as far as girls are concerned has been found in a Yorkshire town on the borders of Lancashire. As soon as a girl becomes a half-timer she is transferred to the boys' department. This arrangement has the effect of limiting greatly the number of half-time girls.

Sometimes an employer for the sake of convenience compels all half-timers in his employ to attend one school. Perhaps it might be thought that this indicates the way to a solution of the whole difficulty of school disorganisation. Why not have special schools for half-timers with a special staff and a special curriculum suited to their needs? It may be granted that such special schools would meet part of the educational difficulty if the methods of teaching and the choice of subjects were carefully adapted to the needs of the half-timers. But it is to be feared that, in point of fact, they would be in danger of becoming inferior in every way to the ordinary schools. Moreover there are many practical objections to the plan. For instance, the distance between the special school and the half-timer's home would in many cases be excessive. And

also a system of segregating half-timers in a school by themselves would tend to deprive them of many of the humanising influences exerted by a good elementary school under ordinary conditions.

It might be thought that the half-timer would in many cases, make up for his loss of education by attending evening schools. This however is not the case. The loss of interest in school-work continues throughout adolescence (and probably throughout life) and half-time scholars, on becoming full-time workers do not attend continuation classes to the same extent as their contemporaries whose school-life has not been interfered with by premature employment. Mr. A. R. Pickles has kept a record of over a thousand children who have left the Burnley Wood Council School during the last five years. Of the half-timers, 40 per cent. have commenced to attend evening schools, whereas 90 per cent. of the day scholars continue their education in this way. These large percentages are no doubt due to the fact that in Burnley, as in Bolton, Manchester and elsewhere, the system is in force of granting a year's free education at the continuation schools to each child at the close of his elementary day school career. In Blackburn, where no such scholarships are given, only 400 children out of the 2000 who annually leave the elementary schools find their way into the evening continuation classes, so that the leakage is 80 per cent.

Further it may be noted that evening schools suffer from the presence of the ex-half-timer. Many teachers state that the ex-half-timer does not take evening school work seriously; the evening spent in the continuation school is looked upon as "a night out." The present inquiry confirms what is said in the Special Reports on Educational Subjects by Messrs. Campagnac and Russell¹ as to the

1. Supplement to Vol. viii. Cd. 1867. "Report on the School Training and Early Employment of Lancashire Children," by Mr. E. T. Campagnac and Mr. C. E. B. Russell.

reading, or rather lack of reading, of boys who have been engaged in half-time employment.

It is argued that the training which a half-timer receives in the workshop is a sufficient compensation for the loss of school education and especially for the loss of the technical instruction given by the evening schools. Some sort of education is received through the dexterity gained, but most of the work in a factory or mill is purely mechanical for many years, and this is one of the most serious features of the whole system. The half-timer receives no training which will enable him to rise to a responsible position later on; he is practically condemned (unless unusually intelligent) to unskilled and low-paid labour for life. What instruction he receives, is given in a casual and hap-hazard fashion by any operative who happens to be his master or mistress for the time being. There are many arguments in favour of the suggestion that half-timers should learn their trades under competent instructors and efficient craftsmen. Nevertheless no such training as ordinarily given would compensate for the loss of the educationally graded courses in manual exercise and in house-craft which are provided in increasing numbers in connexion with the elementary day schools but from which most Education Committees find it necessary to exclude the half-timer in order that the latter may not fail to receive instruction in the ordinary subjects of the curriculum.¹

This loss to girls is in many cases made greater by indulgent mothers who from mistaken kindness do not let

1. The Bradford Education Committee, however, recognising the fact that the half-time girls are being trained for employment rather than for motherhood, and recognising also that this loss of training is the chief cause of infantile mortality, permits half-timers to attend the special classes, although such attendance is detrimental to the acquirement of the three or four subjects which form the basis of elementary education.

their daughters perform any household duties after they have returned from work.

The next subject for investigation is the attitude of the various parties immediately concerned in the half-time system. These are the half-timers themselves, the teachers, the Textile Trade Unionists, the employers, the parents of the half-timers, and lastly the parents of the day scholars and the other ratepayers in half-time districts.

My inquiry convinced me that half-time employment is popular among the half-timers themselves. Only seven cases were met with in which school was preferred to the mill. Many reasons were given for this, such as, "like to earn money"; "like to help Mother"; "like to help to keep th'ome and th' family"; "there is no cane if we lake (play) about"; "because we get spending-money"; "because it makes us sharp" (this from a boy half asleep); "because we get a good trade in our fingers," etc. The commercial instinct is undoubtedly a powerful incentive. The half-timers receive from their parents or employers pocket money or "'sel-brass" (*i.e.*, brass or money for themselves) to the amount of 3d. or 6d. per week.

Some owned that they received as much as 1s. per week but in most cases a portion of such a large sum would be saved week by week, in the Lancashire fashion, for the annual August holiday. Another factor of importance is that the immediate prospects of half-timers are extremely good. The little-piecer earning 5s. per week becomes at thirteen years of age a full-timer with 14s. to 18s. per week; and at 24 to 26 years of age, if fortunate, attains the position of minder with an average weekly wage of 45s. The big-piecers and side-piecers are looked upon as apprentices but their numbers cause a glut in the market which prevents their wage from ever rising much above 18s.

Cases are by no means uncommon of a married man of forty being employed as a side-piecer at this wage. The girl-tenter naturally becomes a weaver with two, three, four or even six looms under her care. The boy-tenter may rise still further and become an "overlooker," but the highest wage attainable does not exceed £2 per week.

Neither the immediate nor the distant future prospects in the woollen trade are quite so good as in the cotton industry; the wages seem to be $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ less.

Probably the fundamental reason for the popularity of the work with the children is more subtle than any that are usually given; it is that, being a wage-earner, the half-timer has more independence and liberty at home. Seeing his elder brother and sister at 16 years of ages earning sufficient wage to become "boarders" at home, he envies their complete freedom. And even supposing that he has no such examples to follow, still the important step from dependence to partial independence has been taken and he is no longer treated as a child.

Less explicable is the strongly conservative attitude of the Textile operatives in the matter. The Bolton Operative Spinners Association with a membership of 5000 may be taken as representative of their opinion. This Trade Union is opposed to the abolition of the half-time system, to an extension of school-life, and to the exclusion of women and girls from the spinning rooms, and has recently almost unanimously rejected the following resolution:- - "That in view of the fact that only one child out of every hundred remains at school until fourteen years of age, the time has now arrived when no child should be either partially or totally exempt from school before fourteen years of age." This unanimity on the part of Textile Operatives has also been maintained at the Annual Trade Union Congresses.

It is, however, only the rank and file of the textile trade unionists who are opposed to any change. Many of their leaders, especially those who represent them in Parliament, openly express their disapproval of the system and advocate as a practical measure of reform an extension of the minimum age for partial exemption to 13.¹

Some experienced observers² favour a development of the half-time system which would make it impossible for a child to obtain full-time employment before reaching the age of 18 years. There is nothing reactionary in this; the proposal is that all employers should be compelled to send their youthful employees to technical classes during a considerable part of the day. In this way it is hoped that a practical substitute for the old apprenticeship training would be found.

But why is the average textile trade unionist in favour of the *status quo*? The reason is easily given. If the trade unionist is a parent, the half-timer's wages increase his weekly income; if he is not, he still obtains useful child labour at a cheap rate; for it is he rather than the mill-manager who engages and employs the half-timer.

The reader will have already gathered that the teachers are not in favour of the present system; indeed, of all parties, they are the most strongly opposed to it. A Half-time Council³ representing 10,000 teachers in Lancashire, Yorkshire, Derbyshire, and Cheshire, and reflecting the unanimous opinion of 60,000 teachers in England and

1. cf. Speech of Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P., at Rochdale on April 20th, 1907. cf. Also the opinion of Mr. W. C. Robinson, General Secretary to the Amalgamated Association of Beamers, Twisters and Drawers, who says: "I don't think the feeling is growing in favour of abolition; I would raise the age to 13 years, but the majority of our members are against any increase."

2. See Sidney and Beatrice Webb. "Industrial Democracy," 1902 Ed., pp. liv.--lvi., 769, 770.

3. The Half-time Council. Secretary, Mr. T. L. Roberts, Redcross Street School, Rochdale.

Wales has been formed with the avowed aim of abolishing of child labour. Furthermore this Council challenges the claim of the textile operatives to settle this question for themselves; they are the interested parties and only one-third of the half-timers are their sons and daughters.¹

The attitude of employers does not seem to have changed since the sittings of the Royal Commission on Labour (1891---4). So far from being keenly in favour of the system they are, for the most part, indifferent and apathetic. Being primarily concerned with out-put and having little to do with the actual engagement of the half-timer, they do not feel that their interests are vitally affected. Since, however, injury to employers brings into operation the Workmen's Compensation Act and leads to searching enquiries from Factory Inspectors, and since the carelessness of youth often leads to accidents, several employers have banished half-timers from their mills. During the recent "boom" the scarcity of adult work-people has induced many managers to increase the number of child-labourers in their factories. In Rochdale and Bradford it was found that places were being reserved in the mills for children who were not yet old enough to claim partial exemption, and that managers were constantly writing to teachers asking them to send any children who held the necessary qualifications. It is not to be supposed that half-time is, as a rule, necessary, for many successful mills have no half-timers at all and there are a few mills running at night from which children's and women's labour is excluded by law.

Below are given 17 typical returns of good, bad and indifferent cases representative of the whole 300 seen.

1. See "Children's Labour Question," p. 140. The present enquiry shows the proportion to be much more nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ than $\frac{1}{3}$.

TABULAR SUMMARY OF TYPICAL INTERVIEWS WITH HALF-TIMERS IN THE TEXTILE TRADES.

Residence of Child.	Sex.	Age. Years.	How many months worked H.T.	Times of getting up. V. standard.	Time of going to bed.	Family.	Occupation of Parents and Family.	Occupation and Wage of H.T.	Amount of Spending Money.	Other Facts.
Bolton	-	12	4	5 a.m., 7 a.m.	8-30	6	Father. Insurance Agent Brother. Minder 2-sisters. Dress-makers Brother. Printer Sister. 2 loom weaver Brother. Printer Brother. Basket-maker F. Graveshopper B. Little-piecer	2/6 Tenter	2d.	Teeth bad, an- nie; bathed in the bath once a week. Likes to work H.T.
Bolton	-	12	7	V. 5-30 and 7-30	9	3	F. Graveshopper B. Little-piecer	Knitter 4/3	3d.	Been to Black- pool for 1 day; Likes to work H.T.
Bolton	-	12	12	IV. 5-30 and 8	9	5	F. Dead M. Washerwoman S. Sotter B. Little piecer	Piecer 5/-	3d.	Goes to a foot- ball match every week. Likes to work H.T.
Bolton	-	12	3	IV. B 5-30 and 8	9	2	F. Barrel-washer S. 4 loom weaver S. Knitter B. Cop-packer F. Fitter	Piecer 4/6	1d.	Can swim. Been to Blackpool for 1 week.
Rochdale	-	12	3	VI. 5-15 and 7-45	8-45	3	F. Cop-packer F. Fitter	Doffer 5/-	6d.	Blackpool 1 day. Goes to Empire or Circus each week. Plays football.
Rochdale	-	12	6	VI. 7-30 and 5	9	1	F. Carder 2 Sisters. each four loom weavers	Doffer 5/3	4d.	Fond of wrest- ling. Chips for dinner 3 times a week. 6 times for supper.
Rochdale	-	12	12	VII. 5-15 and 7-30	9-30	2	F. Minder B. Minder	Gaiter 4/7 Tenter 3d.	10d.	Likes to work H.T.
Barnley	-	12	4	VI. B 5-30 and 8	9-30	1	F. 6 loom weaver knocker-up	Tenter 3/6 for F.	3d. saved 1d. to spend	Goes to Black- pool for 1 week each year. Likes to work H.T.

Burnley	-	-	boy	13	20	VI. B	5-30 and 7 knocker-up	9-30	1	2	F. Shoemaker M. Washerwoman S. Winder S. Taper S. Collier S. Tenter	Tenter 3/7 bank 3d. to spend	1/2 in bank 3d. to spend	Goes to Black- pool for 1 week each year. Likes to work H.T.
Burnley	-	-	girl	12	7	V. A	5-30 and 7-30 alarm	9	2	3	F. Reacher S. 3/6 Tenter	Reacher 6d. bank 3d. to spend	6d. bank 3d. to spend	Been to St. Annes for 3 wks. when ill. An- emic. Likes to work H.T.
Blackburn	-	-	girl	12	8	V.	5-15 and 7-30 knocker-up	9-30	1	2	F. Away (in prison) S. Weaver of 3 looms B. Moulder at foundry	Tenter 6d. bank 2/9 6d. to spend	6d. bank 6d. to spend	Been 11 times for 1 week to Blackpool. Has fish and chips 6 times a week.
Blackburn	-	-	boy	12	11	VI.	5-30 and 7 knocker-up	9	4	5	F. Works in chemical works M. Works in card- room B. Spinner S. Spinner	Hooker 4d. to save, 1d. in to spend	4d. to save, 1d. in to spend	Ruptured; been in Southport Convalescent Home for 1 mth.
Blackburn	-	-	boy	12	5	V.	5-30 and 7 knocker-up	8-30	1	4	F. Manager of works M. Weaver of 4 looms 2 S. Weavers of 6 looms	Tenter 1d. spend 2/9 6d. bank	1d. spend 6d. bank	Can swim.
Blackburn	-	-	boy	13	1	VI.	5 and 6 knocker-up	9-30	3	4	F. Foreman plate- layer 2 S. Weavers of 6 looms	Tenter 5d. bank 2/9 1d. spend	5d. bank 1d. spend	Has never seen sea. Likes to work H.T.
Bradford	-	-	boy	12	2	VI.	5-30 and 8 knocker-up	9-30	4	2	B. Works on railway F. Wool comber B. Wool warehouse	Bobbin 5d. spend ligger 3d. bank 3/6	5d. spend 3d. bank 3/6	Been to More- cambe for 1 wk. Can swim.
Bradford	-	-	girl	12	11	VII.	5-30 and 8 knocker-up	9-30	2	2	F. Warp twister M. Weaver, 2 looms S. Weaver, 2 looms B. Spinner	Doffer 4d. 3/9	4d. 3/9	Never had a holiday away from home.
Bradford	-	-	boy	12	5	VI.	5-30 and 8 knocker-up	9	3	4	F. Labourer B. Cloth warehouse- Taker in man 2 S. Weavers, 4 looms S. Spinner	Doffer 2d. spend 4/- 2d. to save	2d. spend 2d. to save	Never been away from home Likes to work H.T.

There is a good deal of difference of opinion as to the reasons why parents send their children to the mills as half-timers. In about 75 per cent. of the cases examined, poverty can not be pleaded. The "crippled father and widowed mother" argument, so prominent nine or ten years ago, has almost disappeared. Mr. C. Edwards conclusively proved in 1899 that the average wage of half-timer families is quite as great as that of non-half-timer families. In Yorkshire the average weekly wage per family was about £3., while that of Lancashire families was as much as £3. 10s. 0d. The recent inquiry confirms these conclusions; indeed, if anything, the present average wage is slightly higher.

Again, the argument that the system is the outcome of conscious greed on the part of parents is unsatisfactory. In some cases, perhaps, where thrift has become a vice or where the parents are short-sighted and ignorant, greed is the predominant motive. It is to be remembered that promotion in the factory is partly gained by length of service, so that the half-timer obtains an advantage of a year (in Bradford it is two) over the other children and "kails" them as the saying is. This fear that their children will be "kailed" or outstripped in the race for promotion certainly acts as a powerful incentive to some parents. Among less ambitious parents who are not themselves employed in the industry (and most parents are not) mere custom or habit is the chief reason. Teachers, education officials, mill-managers and trade union secretaries are all agreed that custom and custom alone is operative in the majority of cases. One half-timer in a school makes many, not only because he is, as it were, a centre of infection but also because the parent of a day scholar in a school in which half-timers form a large percentage of the whole, knowing that the curriculum is fitted to the needs of the half-timer

and knowing that the lessons are necessarily duplicated, sees no reason why his child should not follow the example of others.

The parents of the day scholars together with the other ratepayers suffer financially from the presence of the half-timer. The grants of the Board of Education are assessed on the average attendance of scholars. The remainder of the cost of education is raised by an education rate. The Elementary Day School Code (Section 43 (b) and (c)) requires in the case of older scholars that an "attendance" to be counted for grant must comprise two hours of secular instruction, inclusive of the necessary recreation. An ordinary day-scholar can make two of such "attendances" on each full school day. Half-timers can only make one "attendance" in a day but in their case the Code allows each such attendance to be counted for purposes of grant as an attendance and a half. Thus, even with this concession, the half-timer can only earn 75 per cent. of the possible attendance grant. This entails a loss to the rates. In Bradford the loss amounts to £500 per annum and in many other places it necessitates an additional 1d. or 2d. on the rates. Consequently the parent of the half-timer not only receives the half-timer's wage but is helped by the other ratepayers to make up the deficiency in the Government grant caused by his child's intermittent attendance at school.

Enough evidence has now been given to enable one to balance the relative merits and defects of the present half-time system and to judge on which side the scale turns. Of all the arguments urged in favour of the system by far the strongest are those of the half-timers themselves. In the others—the arguments of the trade unionists and parents—there is either an irrational element or else a sordid element not justified by the considerations of

poverty. No one can doubt that the love of independence, the desire to help others in the home, are splendid motives deserving of the greatest encouragement. It must not be forgotten that the half-timer is being fitted at an early age for a career which he will probably continue to pursue throughout life. The advantage of this accrues to the whole community considered as an industrial society. On the other side are certain grave disadvantages. There is the physical deterioration which 'half-time' employment often entails; there is the loss of education reflected throughout life in the absence of the desire for intellectual pleasures and there is the helplessness which must necessarily ensue if the health fails and another profession has to be adopted. It is by no means uncommon for young operatives to leave the cotton industry after a few years' employment. Receiving 16s. -18s. a week and seeing no immediate prospect of attaining a higher position (that of 'minder') they leave their employment in the hope of obtaining better wages elsewhere. Again there is the grave disorganisation of the schools; the imperfect education that the day-scholar as well as the half-timer receives in half-time schools and the unjust financial burden which falls upon ratepayers who have no interest in the system. No one weighing carefully the disadvantages and reflecting upon other consequences which have been but barely indicated in the course of this chapter, will hesitate to acknowledge that the system is on the whole both evil and unjust. No doubt improvements could be introduced (such as the special schools already discussed) which would do away with some of the defects. The danger is that other faults would be strengthened and perpetuated by such change.

Can the half-time system be abolished? Do economic or industrial considerations demand its continuance? Will

the balance between profit and loss be upset if the half-time is abolished? Does the cotton industry depend for its success in international competition on this form of employment? The fact that many mills dispense altogether with half-time labour and that other mills run at night (when half-time labour is prohibited) indicates that this form of labour, is not indispensable. Furthermore the steady decline in the numbers of half-timers during the decade 1890-1900 was to a great extent a natural result of improvements in machinery and not wholly due to decline in trade. Real wages have continuously risen and hours of labour have steadily fallen; the decrease in the number of half-timers has been compensated by an increase in the number of adults. Professor S. J. Chapman says¹: "if the most moderate allowance be made for the greater efficiency of adults as compared with children (*i.e.*, half-timers and others) and young persons, it will be found that there is no diminution in the amount of labour power used in the cotton industry, reckoned in adults and their equivalents." He further adds that "there is no evidence of any appreciable displacement of labour having occurred to the serious loss of any section of the operatives."²

Statements such as these, based on full and carefully prepared statistics, point to the conclusion that half-time labour is not necessary on economic grounds. On the other hand the immediate abolition of the system might cause a temporary dislocation of trade and is therefore to be deprecated. The history of the past twenty years proves that the path of gradual reform is the safest, for the reason that it arouses the least amount of opposition. What is necessary

1. "A reply to the Report of the Tariff Commission on the Cotton Industry," p. 39.

2. p. 54.

is not that the reform should be revolutionary but that it should originate from the Central Authority. It is time to abandon the principle of leaving the question to the local authority to settle in its own way. The physique, the educational and moral advancement of any section of the nation are a national concern and ought to be dealt with from a national point of view. Moreover it is almost impossible for a local authority to take any strong line in the face of local interests and the desire to outstrip neighbouring towns and competing mills. Six months before the passing of the Robson Act there was disorder at a town's meeting in Rochdale, convened to discuss the raising of the minimum age of partial exemption, owing to the hostility which the motion excited. But although the Robson Act very soon afterwards actually raised the age from eleven to twelve, not the slightest discontent was then exhibited. This promises well for future legislation. A strong government, earnestly grappling with the problem, could find a solution which would occasion but transient opposition and which would undoubtedly be a great step forward in the social and educational progress of the people.

PETER SANDIFORD.

APPENDIX I.

RECENT VOTES OF LABOUR COUNCILS IN THE TEXTILE DISTRICTS ON THE HALF-TIME SYSTEM.

In February, 1907, the Half-time Council (Lancashire, Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Cheshire) desiring to be informed of the collective opinion of the trades unions upon the half-time system, requested the Trades Unions and Trades Councils in the textile districts to submit to the vote of their members the following resolution :

"That in view of the fact that only one child out of every hundred remains at school until 14 years of age, the time has now arrived when no child shall be either partially or totally exempt from school before 14 years of age."

The Hon. Secretary of the Half-time Council (Mr. T. L. Roberts, Redcross Street School, Rochdale) writes that, to April 20, 1907, the Labour Councils in the following towns had decided in favour of the abolition of the half-time system and of 14 years being fixed as the minimum age for leaving school:—Oldham, Rochdale, Burnley, Hyde, Leigh, Rawtenstall, Nelson, Accrington, Stockport, Wigan, Keighley, Manchester and Salford, Huddersfield, Glossop, Ramsbottom and Tyldesley.

APPENDIX II.

THE DESIRABILITY OF ABOLISHING THE HALF-TIME SYSTEM IN THE TEXTILE TRADES.

Mr. Walter Nield, President of the North-Western section of the Co-operative Educational Committees' Association, who is himself engaged in the cotton industry, writes as follows on the subject of the half-time system. His letter refers to a discussion which took place at a conference of the Co-operative Educational Committees' Association at Manchester on March 2, 1907.

"... One of the speakers at the Conference on March 2 stated that the work in the cotton mills to-day was less exacting than it was twenty years ago. I disputed the statement at the meeting, and have since consulted quite a number of intelligent factory workers, who, I knew, would give a fair answer without any bias either one way or another. In every case their reply was that to-day the work is more exacting than ever it was owing to the high speed of the machinery.

Take my own case. When I was a half-timer, the speed of machinery was nothing like what it is to-day. The length of the spinning mule was shorter by a fourth, and we were allowed thirty minutes for a breathing space in the mill yard. But to-day such a thing would not be tolerated in any of the mills in Oldham, and I presume that we are only a fair sample of the rest of Lancashire.

One question asked at the meeting was what effect the abolition of half-time would have upon the industries of the country. The principal employers of half-timers are the cotton mills. During the last week I have put this question very often to those employed in the mills. The answers I have received have been very similar, though obtained from many sources. In the main, they have stated that the abolition of the

half-time system would hardly have any material effect upon the efficiency of the mills. In most of the more modern mills the management refuse to take half-timers, preferring lads of about fourteen. From the standpoint of injury to trade, there need be no fear of abolishing the half-timer.

Another important question is what would be the effect on the welfare of the families from which the half-timers come. I am bound to confess that in many cases, for example, of widows and of men in receipt of small wages, it would entail a little hardship. But, to their credit be it said, these are not the people who clamour more for the retention of the half-time system. The worst offenders are the best paid operatives in the cotton mills. This is not a rash statement, for during the past few weeks the question has been before the various branches in membership with the Oldham Trades Council, comprising spinners, weavers, cardroom hands, iron and metal trades, etc. Each branch was requested to take a vote as to whether the members were in favour of abolishing the half-time system. The result of their decisions was taken on Tuesday last, March 5th. One branch of spinners, the most highly paid workers in the cotton mill, sent in their resignation on the ground that this question was being repeatedly discussed. The other branches in the cotton trade, while not taking this extreme course, decided not to support the abolition of the half-timer. The only exception was the weavers who supported the principle of doing away with half-timers. This course was also taken by every branch in the iron and metal trade. This is in striking contrast to the action of cotton operatives, as in the iron trade lower wages are earned. In the discussion at one branch a carter with a wife and seven children, receiving a wage of 26s. per week, said: "You know it's hard for me to make ends meet, but I want my children to receive as good an education as other children, and I shall go in for abolishing the half-time system." This is typical of many who are in similar circumstances.

One of the main reasons urged by those who favour the half-time system is that keeping a child at school too long tends to make it want to shirk work. Such reasons are unsound, as every observer knows who has had any experience in the workshop. Another thing to be borne in mind is that the cotton operatives as a rule are indifferent as to whether their children attend evening school or not, while, on the other hand, the workers in the iron trade seem more anxious for their sons to attend technical schools. But there is more call upon the educational resources of the individual in the workshop than in the mill, and this may account in some measure for the different attitude of the workers in the two trades.

But the most important point to my mind is what effect the half-time system has upon the child. Those who have gone through the mill know best what happens. I have seen the ruddy-cheeked boys and girls enter the mill in high glee at the prospect of receiving wages. But as a rule

they have not been there long before the colour is gone, and it is a painful sight, to me at least, to see them before six o'clock in the morning dragging their weary feet towards the mill half awake. Think of that child's condition, after working for six hours in an atmosphere ranging from 75 to 80 degrees, taking its place in the afternoon in the schoolroom to compete with children devoting the full day to school life. What results can you expect? The child is at a disadvantage, and becomes discouraged, feeling that it is the dullard of the school. There is only one topic of conversation: 'I shall be full-time in so long, then I shall have done with school.' Can we reasonably expect such a child to be fond of school? The result is that, unless their parents are alive to the need of education (which when the children are sent to work half-time is very seldom the case), the child never enters school again. Is it any wonder if this is so, for what must the memories of school life be but of a time of weary toil with poor results? Often, with the exception of the art of reading, the little learning which the child received at school is soon lost. But it often happens that one day, like the son who went into a far country, these young people realise that they have lost their educational substance, and they fain would fill their minds with the husks of learning. They find themselves hampered in promotion, as those who are better educated are given the preference. Thousands to-day in Lancashire are in this condition owing to the half-time system.

If half-time were abolished and 14 fixed as the leaving age from the elementary school, I believe it would be quite possible for both girls and boys to attend school in the evening twice a week in the winter months without any undue physical overstrain after a long day in the mill. I have arrived at this conclusion from observations I have made. I have noted many who have been kept at school until they were 14 years of age, and have been struck with their physical condition as compared with those who have worked half-time. They have seemed to stand the strain a great deal better, and their attendance at evening school has seemed to have no ill-effect upon them, while their superior intelligence has been marked. Therefore I have not the slightest doubt that about nine-tenths of them would be able to stand the strain of attendance at evening school.

As to the suggestion that young persons should be allowed to work shorter hours in the mills on certain days in the week, I am afraid this cannot be done. There are various reasons for this. In the first place, mill work is so arranged that, if a young person were called away, it would make a vast difference to the production as the equipment is so bare from the standpoint of the hands that with the withdrawal of a young person the machines could not be kept in motion. And the stopping of the machinery in a modern mill is out of the question. True, it might be arranged for additional help to take the place of those away at school. But this would add to the cost of production, and that could hardly be done, for in normal times the margin is very fine in the cotton trade. I quite agree that if this course could be adopted it would be the better course, but am inclined to think it is not practicable at present."

CHAPTER X.

Laws Regulating the Employment of Children and Young Persons in Factories and Workshops in the United Kingdom, Germany and Switzerland.*

IN reading the following table showing the legal limitations to the employment of young persons and children in factories and workshops it should be noted that :

(1) The laws given for Germany and Switzerland are those applying to the whole country. The Imperial and Federal Laws represent the minimum common to all, but each State of Germany and each Canton of Switzerland may enact more stringent regulations.

(2) In the provisions for overtime and nightwork in the German and Swiss laws the term "necessary" is never clearly defined. This renders difficult, and possibly misleading, any comparison of the clauses regulating overtime and nightwork in those countries with similar clauses in the laws of the United Kingdom, where every exception is rigidly defined.

CHILDREN UNDER 14 IN WORKSHOPS AND FACTORIES.

DEFINITION OF FACTORY AND WORKSHOP.

United Kingdom.

The terms are defined so as to include any premises or places in which manual labour is carried on by way of trade or for purposes of gain in making, repairing, or adapting any article for sale.

Germany.

The terms are well defined. The Industrial Code relates to "factories, mills, and workshops using power, mines, salt-pits, quarries, foundries, timber yards, ready-made clothing workshops, etc.

Domestic workshops are exempted.

Switzerland.

A factory is any establishment employing more than 10 workpeople, or using motor power or employing persons under 18, and employing over 5 people, or employing less than 6 but on work dangerous to health.

* This chapter has been kindly supplied by the Labour Department of the Board of Trade.

EMPLOYMENT IN FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

United Kingdom.	Germany.	Switzerland.
Prohibited to anyone under 12 years.	Prohibited to anyone under 13 years.	Prohibited to anyone under 14 years.

HOURS OF WORK.

Children of 12 years may only work half-time. Children of 13, unless they have obtained a certificate of having reached a certain standard of proficiency, or of having made the prescribed number of attendances, may only work half-time.	Children of 13 if they have passed primary education standard may work half-time. In "power-using workshops" they may work under the same regulations as young persons of 14.	—
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Children of 13 years with an educational certificate of total exemption from school attendance may work under the same regulations as young persons of 14.

HALF-TIME.

MAXIMUM HOURS (exclusive of Meals) PERMITTED IN.

TEXTILE FACTORIES.

55½ hours a fortnight.	72 hours a fortnight.	—
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NON-TEXTILE FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

60 hours a fortnight.	72 hours a fortnight.	—
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DOMESTIC WORKSHOPS.

74½ hours a fortnight.	Not regulated.	Not regulated by Federal Law.
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OVERTIME.

Prohibited, except for half hour to complete a process in bleaching and dyeing works, print works and iron mills, foundries and paper mills in which male young persons are not employed at night; but the weekly total must not be exceeded.	Allowed (under "permit" of factory inspector) for a period of four weeks in cases of break-down. In "necessary" cases (e.g. seasonal work) the Federal Council may permit overtime but the weekly total must not exceed 36 hours.	—
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NIGHT WORK.

Prohibited.	Prohibited.	—
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354 LAWS REGULATING EMPLOYMENT.

COMPULSORY HOLIDAY AND SUNDAY REST.

United Kingdom.	Germany.	Switzerland
Sunday rest compulsory without exception. Six whole days (or their equivalent) per annum.	Sunday rest and fête day rest compulsory.	

YOUNG PERSONS IN FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

DEFINITION OF YOUNG PERSON.

United Kingdom.	Germany.	Switzerland.
All of 14 and under 18 years and those of 13 years of age with educational certificate of total exemption.	All of 14 and under 16 years and those of 13 years who have passed primary education standard.	All of 14 and under 18 years.

HOURS OF WORK.

MAXIMUM HOURS (exclusive of Meals) PERMITTED IN.

TEXTILE FACTORIES.

Week 55½.	60.	64.
Day 10.	10.	11 (9 on eves of holidays).

NON-TEXTILE FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS.

Week 60.	60.	64.
Day 10½.	10.	11 (9 on eves of holidays).

DOMESTIC WORKSHOPS.

Week 60.	Exempted.	Exempted.
Day 10½.	Exempted.	Exempted.

OVERTIME.

Prohibited, except as in the case of children; in water mills and in Turkey red dyeing and open air bleaching under special conditions.	Allowed in the same cases and subject to the same proviso as in the case of children.	Allowed when necessary, e.g. for stoppage of the machinery; can only be granted for two weeks by the Local Authority, for longer by the Cantonal Government.
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NIGHT WORK.

Prohibited entirely to girls.	Prohibited generally but allowed for a period of four weeks in cases of break down.	Prohibited to girls. Permitted to boys where uninterrupted work is necessary.
Prohibited to boys but with certain exceptions.		

COMPULSORY HOLIDAY AND SUNDAY REST.

•United Kingdom.

Germany.

Switzerland.

A short day must be given one week-day a week. Six whole week-day holidays (or their equivalent) per annum.

Sunday and fête day rest compulsory.

Sunday rest compulsory except to boys in same circumstances as allow of night work.

Sunday rest compulsory except for male young persons working by relays in blast furnaces and paper mills.

LEGISLATION REGULATING THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS.

(a) THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The following laws contain provisions affecting the employment of children and young persons:—

- I. Factory and Workshop Acts (1878—1901).
- II. Employment of Children Act (1903).
- III. Education Acts (1870—1901).
- IV. Coal Mines Regulation Acts (1887—1900).
- V. Metalliferous Mines Regulation Acts (1872—1900).
- VI. Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act (1904).
- VII. Shop Hours Act (1892).

Summaries of the most important of these provisions, now in force, are attached.

I. FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACTS (1878—1901).

AGE OF ADMISSION OF CHILDREN INTO TEXTILE AND NON-TEXTILE FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS AND QUARRIES:—The age of admission is twelve, if an educational certificate is obtained. In factories a medical certificate is necessary under 16 and shall not be given unless a certificate of birth or other sufficient evidence of age be produced. Children of 12 and 13 years must attend school either twice

on alternate days or once every day when working in the morning or afternoon sets. Children of 13 who have obtained a certificate of having made the prescribed number of attendances at school or of having passed the prescribed standard of proficiency are classed with young persons, *i.e.*, with those of 14 years old. When a child becomes a young person a fresh certificate of fitness must be obtained.

DURATION OF WORKING DAY. CHILDREN:—In textile factories, non-textile factories and workshops the ordinary working period is defined as between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m., or 7 a.m. and 7 p.m., or 8 a.m. and 8 p.m. In certain cases in non-textile factories the Secretary of State may alter hours to between 9 a.m. and 9 p.m. Hours for meals are fixed. Children of 12—14 work on alternate days or on the half time system. Hours of alternate days in textile factories, non-textile factories and workshops are 10 exclusive of 2 hours' rest, except on Saturday. In the morning and afternoon set system:—Children in the morning set must cease work at the dinner hour, but not later than 1 p.m. Children in the afternoon set begin at the end of the dinner-time, but not earlier than noon. Children in textile factories may work $55\frac{1}{2}$ hours a fortnight. Children in non-textile factories and workshops may work 60 hours a fortnight. Children in domestic workshops may work $74\frac{1}{2}$ hours a fortnight, in all cases exclusive of meals.

YOUNG PERSONS:—In textile factories young persons (14-18) may work 10 hours a day except on Saturdays and $55\frac{1}{2}$ hours a week. In non-textile factories and workshops they may work $10\frac{1}{2}$ a day except on Saturdays and 60 a week. In domestic workshops young persons may work between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m., and on Saturdays between 6 a.m. and 4 p.m.; they may work $10\frac{1}{2}$ hours a day, except on Saturdays and 60 a week.

EXCEPTIONS AS TO DURATION OF WORK. CHILDREN:—Over-

time is never allowed in textile factories. The only exception with regard to children is the occasional half hour to complete a process in bleaching and dyeing works, print works, and iron mills, foundries and paper mills in which male young persons are not employed at night, but the hours a week are not to exceed the legal limit.

YOUNG PERSONS:—(1) The same exception on the same conditions is made with regard to young persons under 18. (2) Water mills: one hour overtime may be granted under certain conditions to factories liable to be stopped by drought or floods. (3) Turkey red dyeing and open air bleaching: overtime permitted so far as is necessary to prevent damage under certain conditions.

NIGHT-WORK:—Night-work forbidden to all under 18, subject to special exceptions.

EXCEPTIONS AS TO NIGHT-WORK. YOUNG PERSONS:—Subject to certain special conditions, male young persons over 14 may be employed on night-work in: Glass works, Blast furnaces, Iron mills, Letterpress printing works and Paper mills. Male young persons over 16 may be employed on work in: Lace Factories, between 4 a.m. and 10 p.m., Bakehouses, between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m., factories or workshops where printing of newspapers is carried on not more than two nights a week,—during not more than two nights a week. On night work in electrical works, in the part of a factory in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used, in the process of galvanising sheet metal and wire, of calcining and stamping in mineral dressing floors in Cornwall, in china-clay works and certain other scheduled factories and workshops.

COMPULSORY HOLIDAY AND SUNDAY REST. CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS:—Sunday rest is compulsory subject to special exceptions. A short day must be given on one week-

day in every week. In textile factories this must be Saturday; but in certain non-textile factories and workshops another week-day may be substituted. There are six compulsory holidays in England, viz.: Christmas Day, Good Friday and four Bank Holidays, but by due notice other equivalent holidays may be substituted; similar regulations adapted to local circumstances are prescribed for Scotland and Ireland.

EXCEPTIONS AS TO SUNDAY REST:—Male young persons working day and night by relays in blast furnaces and paper mills may work on Sundays. Jewish occupiers who close the whole of Saturday may employ young persons *either* one hour more every working day *or* on Sunday.

FISH AND FRUIT PRESERVING AND CREAMERIES:—These industries are under special regulations.

RESTRICTIONS AS TO DANGEROUS AND UNHEALTHY TRADES. CHILDREN:—Employment of a child in cleaning machinery, or under machinery in motion, is prohibited. A child is not to be employed in: (1) The silvering of mirrors by the mercurial process.¹ (2) Making of white lead.¹ (3) Melting or annealing glass.² (4) Dry-grinding in the metal trades or where lucifer match dipping is carried on. (5) A child must not be employed in wet spinning unless certain precautions are taken.¹

YOUNG PERSONS:—Employment of young persons in cleaning dangerous machinery and mill-gearing in motion is prohibited. A female under sixteen is not to be employed in making or finishing bricks or salt.

N.B.—In addition to these restrictions there are many dangerous trades under special rules, some of which especially affect children and young persons.

1. Applies also to young persons.

2. Applies also to female young persons.

II. EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN ACT (1903).

GENERAL RESTRICTIONS ON EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN:—

(1) A child (*i.e.*, under 14 years) shall not be employed between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. (2) A child under 11 shall not be employed in street trading. (3) A child if employed half time under Factory and Workshop Act 1901, not to be employed in any other way. (4) A child shall not be employed to lift heavy weights. (5) A child shall not be employed in any occupation likely to be injurious to his health or education, having regard to his physical condition.

(Sections 1 and 2 of this Act enable local authorities to make bye-laws regulating the employment of children and young persons under 16, but these bye-laws do not apply to children above 12 employed in factories or workshops or mines.)

III. EDUCATION ACTS (1870-1902).

Every person who takes into his employment a child of the age of 10 and under the age of 14 years, before the child has obtained a certificate of having reached the standard of education fixed by a bye-law in force in the district for the total or partial exemption from school attendance, is liable to a penalty.

A certificate of partial exemption from school attendance may not be given to children under 12 years of age.

A certificate of total exemption from school attendance may not be given to children under 13 years of age.

In parishes where 13 years is fixed as the minimum age for partial or total exemption from school attendance in the case of children to be employed in agriculture, children between 11 and 13 years who have passed the standard fixed for partial exemption from school attendance need not attend school more than 250 times in any year.

In Scotland (Education (Scotland) Act, 1901) no child under 14 may be employed, except in any casual employment, unless he has obtained a certificate of exemption from the obligation to attend school. A child over 12 may however be employed casually without such certificate up to 9 p.m. in summer and 7 p.m. in winter.

IV. COAL MINES REGULATION ACTS (1887-1900).

(Including Mines (Prohibition of Child Labour underground) Act).

Boy= male under 16 years, Girl=female under 16 years.

EMPLOYMENT BELOW GROUND:—Employment below ground of boys under 13 and of girls of any age prohibited. Subject to conformity with Education Acts boys over 13 may work 54 hours a week and 10 hours a day.

EMPLOYMENT ABOVE GROUND:—Employment above ground of boys and girls under 12 prohibited. Subject to Education Acts boys and girls of 12 and under 13 years may work six hours a day for six days a week, or ten hours a day for three days a week. Boys and girls of 13 and upwards may work 10 hours a day and 54 hours a week. They may not be employed more than 5 hours continuously without an interval of half an hour for a meal, nor for more than eight hours in a day without intervals amounting to 1½ hours. Employment of boys and girls in moving railway waggons prohibited.

V. METALLIFEROUS MINES REGULATION ACTS (1872—1900).

(Including Mines (Prohibition of Child Labour underground) Act, 1900).

EMPLOYMENT BELOW GROUND:—Employment below ground of boys under 13 and of girls of any age prohibited. Subject to the Education Acts, boys of 13 and under 16 may work for 10 hours a day and 54 hours a week. Male

young persons under 18 employed on work in connexion with engines are subject to special regulations.

EMPLOYMENT ABOVE GROUND:—This Act does not regulate the employment of children employed above ground. Such employment therefore comes under the category of employment at “pit-banks” which are scheduled as factories or workshops under the Factory and Workshop Acts.

VI. PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN ACT (1904).

This Act regulates the employment of children in public entertainments etc., and restricts street-selling or performing by boys under 14 or girls under 16, to the hours between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m., with powers to the local authority to extend these hours by *bye-law* (in addition to all regulations in Education Acts).

It permits licences to be granted for any child exceeding 10 years of age to take part in public entertainments at any hour the licensing authority deems suitable under certain conditions. It forbids the employment of children under 11 years without such a licence.

VII. SHOP HOURS ACT (1892).

Under this Act the employment of young persons under 18 is restricted to 74 hours per week, including meal times, and no young person may be employed in a shop and a factory on the same day if the total hours worked exceed the number permitted under the Factory Acts.

(b) GERMANY.

In Germany the federal legislation regarding the employment of children and young persons consists of (1) certain provisions contained in the Industrial Code of June 1st, 1891, as modified by subsequent enactments, and (2) the law of March 30th, 1903.

The provisions in the Industrial Code relate to the employment of children and young persons in “factories”;

in mills and workshops using power; in mines, saltpits; in underground quarries; in surface quarries and brick-yards in which work is more or less regularly carried on; in foundries, shipyards, and timberyards; in ready-made clothing workshops and in workshops in which tobacco processes are carried on. In these provisions "children" are those under 14, and "young persons" those from 14 to 16. The term "Factory" is not defined.

The following is a summary of the provisions under this Law in so far as they affect child labour:—

Age of Admission of Children into Factories, Mines, etc.:—Thirteen. Those over 13 may only be admitted if they have passed the "primary" education standard.

Duration of working day: children:—Six hours,¹ cut by a regular rest of at least half an hour. Young persons: ten hours, cut by three regular rests of half an hour (morning), 1 hour (mid-day) and half an hour (afternoon).² If not more than eight hours be worked the two half hour pauses need not be given but not more than four hours must be worked on either side of the mid-day break. If not more than six hours be worked only one pause need be given. Its length must be at least half an hour. Should the nature of the work or the interest of the workers require it, the pauses may be shortened or omitted. But not more than 6 hours must be worked if the pauses do not amount to at least one hour.

• Exceptions as to duration of work. Children and young

1. In "power-using" workshops other than those engaged in glass, stone and metal polishing, and tobacco processes, children between 13 and 14 whose primary education is complete may be employed 10 hours. Also boys under 16 may be employed for more than 10 hours in certain specified "handicrafts" when working in workshops with less than 10 workers. In certain workshops using hydraulic power also in smaller bakeries, and corn mills, the hours of young persons are unrestricted except in so far as night work is prohibited.

2. In certain workshops a 1½-hour pause at mid-day may replace the 3 above-mentioned pauses.

persons :—Overtime is allowed for a period of 4 weeks in cases of break-down; for longer only by authority of the Chancellor. In necessary¹ cases the Federal Council may permit overtime, but the total work must not exceed 36 hours per week for children (under 14 years) and 60 for young persons (14 to 16). 70 in tile works.

Restrictions on night work :—(Hours constituting night work are 8.30 p.m. to 5.30 a.m.). Forbidden to children and young persons.

Exceptions as to night work. Young persons :—Night work allowed for a period of 4 weeks in cases of break-down; for longer only by authority of the Chancellor.

Compulsory Sunday and holiday rest. Children and young persons :—Sunday and fête day rest compulsory and employment also prohibited during hours fixed for religious teaching.

Restrictions as to dangerous trades :—The Federal Council may forbid or regulate employment in any dangerous trade. Children and young persons employed in certain works and factories are protected by special regulations (see Appendix).

The above regulations concerning (1) night work, and (2) pauses, are replaced by the following, in the case of certain young persons employed in those coal mines of Prussia, Baden and Alsace-Lorraine whose shifts are of 8 hours duration. Boys over 14, employed in surface transport work must not start work before 5 a.m. or finish later than 11 p.m.² They must have at least 15 hours rest between shifts (13 on the days preceding and following Sundays and holidays). Pauses during the day's work (included in the shifts) must amount to at least an hour.

1. *e.g.*, Work which is seasonal or in connexion with which the furnaces must be kept constantly alight.

2. Certain exceptions on the days preceding and following Sundays and holidays.

If more than one pause be taken two must last at least a quarter of an hour each or three at least 10 minutes each. Boys over 14 may be employed in surface work suited to their strength in 6-hour shifts without having a pause of half an hour, provided the nature of the mine involves interruptions of work. In each of the above cases a certificate of fitness is required.

APPENDIX—DANGEROUS TRADES.

The following industries are subject to special regulations regarding the employment of children and young persons. In some cases the presence of children under 16 is altogether prohibited.

Coal Mines (see above).

India Rubber Works.

Glass Works.

Sugar factories and refineries.

Zinc Foundries.

Forges and Rolling Mills.

Thomas furnaces.

Work with animal hair, fibres, etc.

Brush, etc., making.

Brick and tile works.

Stone Quarries.

Printing offices and type foundries.*

Chicory Works.

Lead Foundries.

Use of lead paints and other lead products.

Corn Mills.*

Bakeries.*

(2) The law of March 30th, 1903, which came into force on January 1st, 1904, regulates the employment of children in many industrial undertakings not subject to the pro-

* In this case the special regulations refer to apprentices.

visions of the Industrial Code. Under this law children are persons under 13, or over 13 if they are still obliged to attend a primary school. Their employment is prohibited in building (including sewer-making, etc.), in surface quarries and brickyards not subject to the provisions of the Industrial Code, cleaning of steam-boilers, stone-breaking, chimney sweeping, the mixing of paints, in cellars and in workshops in which certain specified industrial operations are engaged in; nor may children take part in public performances except in those of special interest to science or art. In workshops in which the employment of children is permitted; in restaurants and commercial and transport trades; and as carriers and messengers, children under 12 must not be employed. Those over 12 must not be employed for more than 3 hours a day (4 in school vacation) and 2 hours' rest must be taken at mid-day. They must do no work between 8 p.m. and 8 a.m. and in the afternoon must not work for the first hour after school. Girls, who come under the above definition of children, must not be employed as waitresses in restaurants. The above provisions are relaxed in certain respects in the case of children related to their employers.

(c) SWITZERLAND.

The labour legislation of Switzerland divides itself into two groups:—

1. Federal.
2. Cantonal.

It should be noted that the power of the Federal Government to regulate the employment of children, etc., is restricted to work in factories.¹ All regulation of labour

1. A factory is (1) any establishment employing more than 10 work-people, or (2) any establishment employing less than 11 but more than 5 which either uses motor power or employs persons aged less than 18 or involves danger to health, or (3) any establishment employing less than 6 which involves exceptional danger to health, or (4) any establishment employing less than 11 which is "evidently of the factory type."

outside factories belongs to the Cantons which have power to make laws for their districts so long as these do not conflict with the Federal enactments. Mines are exempt from regulation.

In the following analysis some of the more important cantonal decrees are given in addition to the general Federal provisions.

(a) FEDERAL.

DATE OF PRESENT LAW :—March 23rd, 1877, completed by law of April 1st, 1905 (with special decrees since 1891).

AGE OF ADMISSION OF CHILDREN :—Must have completed 14 years.

DURATION OF WORKING DAY. Children 14—16 :—Eleven hours cut by a rest of at least 1 hour; but this must *include* time for instruction. Saturdays and Eves of Holidays, 9 hours. Young persons 16—18 :—Eleven hours cut by a rest of at least 1 hour. Saturdays and Eves of Holidays, 9 hours.

EXCEPTIONS AS TO DURATION OF WORK. Young persons :—Temporary concessions may be allowed when necessary, *e.g.*, stoppage of the machinery. But they must not cause night work to children and young persons (14—18). They can only be granted for two weeks by the local authority, if for longer the Cantonal Government must grant them.

RESTRICTIONS ON NIGHT WORK. (Hours of night are 8 p.m. to 5 a.m. during June, July and August; 8 p.m. to 6 a.m. during remaining months). Young persons :—Forbidden to those under 18.

EXCEPTIONS AS TO NIGHT WORK :—No concessions to girls. Young persons :—Night work is permitted to *boys* of 14—18 in industries where uninterrupted work is necessary, but the duration of work is to be below the normal 11 hours. It can only be granted for 2 weeks by the local authority.

if for longer, by the Cantonal Government, but must remain temporary.

COMPULSORY SUNDAY AND HOLIDAY REST:—Sunday rest compulsory (under 18). No concessions allowed to girls. *Boys* 14-18 may be employed in cases of absolute necessity and in continuous trades under terms similar to those for concessions to young persons in night work.

RESTRICTIONS ON DANGEROUS TRADES:—Dangerous, etc., work may be absolutely forbidden to those under 18 by the Federal Council. Employment of children 14-16 is prohibited in many occupations dangerous to health or safety, *e.g.*, match-making, lead works, electrical works, etc., etc., see Appendix). The Federal Council may shorten hours where their length endangers the health of the worker.

DANGEROUS TRADES.

The employment of children from 14—16 is prohibited in work connected with:—

- (1) Boilers used for boiling under pressure.
- (2) Motors.
- (3) Dynamos, etc., in which high tension currents are used.
- (4) Cranes and drawbridges.
- (5) Transmission of power.
- (6) Circular or band saws, planing machines, etc.
- (7) Calenders, etc., if not perfectly guarded, crushing machines, etc.
- (8) Explosives.
- (9) Heating of easily inflammable materials.
- (10) Cement, etc., works where much dust is produced.
- (11) Mordanting and shaping in hat factories.
- (12) Chemical works where poisons are employed or poisonous gases are generated.
- (13) Tinning and galvanising.
- (14) Manufacture of paints containing lead.

The above were defined in a Federal Decree of December 31st, 1897.

On March 10th, 1899, the employment of children under 16 in match factories was prohibited. Those over 14 are, however, permitted to be employed in the making of boxes in the factories.

(b) CANTONAL PROVINCES.

The following Laws relate to establishments not covered by the Federal Law and employing women.

Neuchâtel. Children:—The law of this Canton permits employment of children of 13 in certain cases. Girls under 15 work only 10 hours a day. Young persons:—Girls under 18 prohibited employment as waitresses in inns, etc. (unless they are members of the proprietor's family).¹ The apprentice law of Neuchâtel limits the hours of apprentices to 10 per day.

Zurich. Children and young persons:—Hours of labour, 10 per day for all females. Eves of Sundays and holidays, 9 hours. Pause at noon 1½ hours. Time required by girls under 18 to perform obligatory educational duties is included in work period. Girls under 20 and boys under 16 may not be employed as waitresses and waiters in inns.

1. A similar prohibition is also in force in St. Gall, Lucerne and Soleure. In the case of Bâle-ville the prohibition extends to boys under 16, and in that of St. Gall to boys under 15.

CHAPTER XI.

Working Men and Continuation Schools.

THERE is at present a strong current of interest in education among the skilled workers in England. It is felt that more must be done not only to improve the conditions of work in the ordinary elementary schools, but to provide some form of further education for boys and girls who have completed the elementary school course. So far as I can judge, however, the idea of enforcing attendance at evening continuation classes without also limiting the hours of employment of all young people up to 17 years of age is regarded with less favour than was the case two or three years ago. Discussion of the question has disclosed many practical difficulties.

For the purpose of an inquiry into the attitude of working men towards evening continuation schools, the term "working men" may be held to include not only artisans and those who work for an hourly wage, but desk clerks and those who work for a salary; not only those whose skill alone is their necessary qualification, but those who, when changing employment, need written references.

If the term "working men" be considered in its narrow and legal aspect, then those embraced by it can be isolated only through the trade unions of the country, which themselves include but a part of those eligible to join them.

The Friendly Society Movement cannot be considered "working class" unless the whole body of clerks be

included in the term. The Co-operative Movement has in it representatives of all classes.

To turn to another aspect of the question, artisans may be divided into three classes: those whose intention it is to become foremen, those who are filled with the spirit of combination—trade unionists before all else—and those who are satisfied simply to do their day's work. The first class will secure technical education at all costs; it is represented in our polytechnics by many keen students who study the theory of their trades. The best of the representatives of the second class are frequently to be found amongst those who study economics, industrial history and citizenship. An artisan seldom finds his interests in both of these classes; if so, it is not for long. In the third class the great body of artisans may be placed. It supplies the rank and file of the trade unions. It is the class that, even above the others, needs the influences of a wise and careful propaganda. It has seldom expressed itself educationally. It is far in the rear of its leaders. From it, the general impression that artisans are careless of their higher educational interest has been gained. Men of this class are unwilling to submit themselves to any definite educational influences, but when they are organised they will fall into line with that modern working class movement which is definitely and distinctly educational. This movement, clearly expressed, as it is, by the leaders, is to be counted upon as a factor in the future. Workpeople as a whole are seeing more and more clearly that education is the great thing and the real thing, making all things possible for the man who has it.

The desk clerk, who is often a member of an artisan's family, demands consideration. His work is simply to write plainly; to add correctly; to use a ready-reckoner; and to exercise the ordinary virtues of punctuality and

amenability to discipline. More thoughtful members of this class attend continuation schools for the purpose of gaining proficiency in shorthand, typewriting and book-keeping. In this way they increase their value during the early years of their employment, and are better equipped when opportunities for promotion occur. The ordinary clerk is not studious. He does not attend continuation schools and does not desire to do so. It may be argued that he must be quite aware of the fact that wage-earning power increases with knowledge, but this fact is often obscured by the conditions of work in a large office, and by the lack of necessary inspiration in a small one. Moreover, the obtrusively studious type of clerk seldom gets promotion, certainly not more rapidly than the man who does not study. It is the well balanced clerk who succeeds; the clerk who is educated in a real way, so that the facts of his knowledge and his certificates do not obtrude themselves; his knowledge showing itself—as all true knowledge should—in character and general efficiency. The average clerk does not understand this. He sees the man who is obviously studious, still working at the desk, and fails to see that the man who succeeds has been, of necessity, studious also, though in a different way. In a large office in London, directly connected with the Co-operative Movement, it was found that only a very small proportion of the clerks had ever attended evening continuation schools, and these, almost without exception, for the purpose of studying shorthand and book-keeping. The organisation, in this case, true to its profession, directly encourages employees, offering to pay their fees for classes in general and technical subjects at University Extension courses, colleges and polytechnics. The applications made are few. In 1903-4, only 28 applications were received from over 1,000 employees, and even when there

was a direct technical connection between the classes and the daily work, the same state of affairs prevailed. Those who had attended evening continuation schools were asked what they thought necessary to increase the efficiency of such schools. The unanimous answer was "more social opportunities," although some felt that the efficiency of evening school work depended to a very great extent upon smaller classes and more individual instruction. It must be remembered that book-keeping, shorthand and typewriting classes are always well filled and frequently over-crowded.

This brief consideration of the conditions of artizans and desk clerks leads directly to the conclusion that there is great need for a propaganda which would insist upon its being the duty of every artizan to educate himself to the utmost of his capacity in order to be of greater service to the community. It should appeal to him to continue his education, to increase his efficiency, to add to his possibilities, not only for himself, but for the sake of the community to which he belongs. Much educational propaganda in the past has failed, because its expressions have been unintelligible to working men. Moreover, there is great danger of the materialistic appeal being given undue prominence. Artizans and clerks have been appealed to for many years to educate themselves with the object of improving their positions. Where the appeal has been answered, it has certainly not been followed by the same success that a larger appeal might have induced: an appeal directed not to motives which might easily become selfish, but to such motives as are included in the man whose measure and stature are perfect.

The efforts of working men in connection with evening continuation schools must be treated entirely as the work of co-operators. The Trade Union Movement, as such, has

had until late years no direct connection with educational movements.¹ The reason for this is not far to seek. The work of the trade unions has been peculiarly definite. They have concerned themselves with such matters as the improvement of the status of their members, the maintenance of the standard rate of wages and the financial operations of sick and other benefits. The very definiteness of those objects has prevented the conception of a larger ideal. Owing, however, to the influence of trades councils, and the advanced position of many of their leaders, they are now associating themselves with educational movements. They are to be counted upon as factors in any work which tends to increase the efficiency of popular education; their representatives are to be seen at educational conferences; their support has been generously given to the Workers' Educational Association and to such institutions as the Ruskin College at Oxford; moreover their papers and magazines are always open to educational influences. When occasion demands the leaders never fail to express the importance of education to working men. The educationist who would estimate the forces of the future, would be wrong if he omitted the trade unions, although in his estimate of the past he is unable to grant them, in this immediate connexion, high place.

Working men's clubs have, in many instances, maintained work of an educational character, although more frequently their work has been in connexion with local or national politics. Friendly Societies of all types have been usually content with the excellence of their financial

1. Some branches of the Northern Counties Weavers' Association, however, have for many years encouraged the attendance of their younger members at technical classes by payment of fees and by rewards. This action has been successful in stimulating the educational interest of the younger members concerned.

operations. On the other hand, the Social Democratic Federation, the Fabian Society and Clarion Clubs, have never failed to propagate their ideals by means of definite teaching. Fabian book-boxes have always been in great demand; socialist Sunday schools for adults have done useful work, and of late years the Adult School Movement has made much progress, even inducing the suggestion that continuation school education might in some way be attached to Sunday schools.

In a recent speech Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P., stated that he received his early education at classes in connexion with a co-operative society. This is a significant and typical fact. The Co-operative Movement has been in contact with popular education at many points. It has been frequently a pioneer. Its work in connexion with free libraries ceased only when the municipalities commenced to take action. A large number of co-operative societies have kept true to the old ideal, "Educate your members," clearly expressed by the Rochdale Pioneers in 1844. Their work in connexion with evening continuation schools has sometimes been sufficient for the locality, and has often paved the way for municipal action. The admission must be made, however, that most of the educational work of the co-operative movement during later years has been propagated, not by working men co-operators, but by men of the educated class who have become co-operators.

The educational report of the Co-operative Union would mislead an inquirer who was not alive to the fact that only a portion of the educational work of the movement is recorded therein. It is customary to base criticisms on this report. The report, however, deals only with such work as lies immediately within the sphere of influence of

the Central Education Committee of the Union. During the year 1905, the sum of £83,266 was voted for educational work by co-operative societies, independently of the Central Committee. A great part of this sum, no doubt, was spent upon advertisements and social functions, but many societies paid continuation school fees for their members and their members' children. Some societies expend a large amount every year in this way.

Turning directly to the subject of the inquiry, it is interesting at the outset to take a few typical examples of societies which pay fees. During the session 1902-3, Norwich Society paid the fees of 75 students; but in the session 1903-4, no fees were paid unless the students had been approved by examination. Only ten students were so approved. The Ipswich Co-operative Society agreed to pay fees at the Technical Institute during 1903-4. The fees of twelve men studying technical subjects and the fees of twenty women studying domestic subjects were paid. The Oldham Industrial Society (Lancashire) pays half of the fees charged to members and their children, but the amount paid for each individual is not allowed to exceed five shillings. The York Co-operative Society paid, in 1903-4, for over 600 students, who, for the most part, attended science classes. It may be remarked that very few co-operative societies of standing exclude themselves from the educational work of the town or district in which they are situated. It is especially satisfactory to record that their approval of evening school work is supplemented so often by financial assistance. This assistance has been generous and genuine, and it may safely be inferred that if the municipality had not taken steps to establish classes, the co-operative society would often have done so. The cases in which co-operative societies have acted as evening continuation school

authorities for the town are not numerous. The minutes of the Grays Co-operative Society (Essex) are instructive. In 1884—it may be noted that the London School Board did no evening school work between the years 1875 and 1882—"free elementary classes were held in the Co-operative Assembly Rooms at Grays on two evenings per week. These were continued up to 1887, but no Government grant was claimed. In 1885-6 a teacher was engaged to teach technical subjects. In 1887 classes were commenced by the Society in connexion with South Kensington. The subjects taught were geometry, building construction, drawing, mathematics, magnetism and electricity, botany and geology. The teachers were duly qualified men. The outcome was that a Technical Instruction Board was formed in the town, which purchased the whole teaching stock of the Co-operative Society. The Plymouth Society, another interesting example, gained Government grants up to the year 1897-8, when it voluntarily relinquished them, while continuing the education of its members in the study of industrial history and economics. Its classes have been for many years the most successful held under the auspices of the Education Committee of the Co-operative Union. The schools of the Local Authority at Plymouth are also well attended and successful.

Some co-operative societies which held continuation schools up to the passing of the 1902 Act have now handed them over to the local authority. Of these the Preston schools demand special notice, not only because of the large attendance, but because of the excellent way in which the schools were arranged to prepare students for the instruction given at the Harris Institute in the town. The children were caught by the Co-operative Society, before they had time to forget what they had learnt at the day school, and numbers were passed on to

the higher institution, frequently assisted by the payment of their fees. The status of the Committee as an educational body was admitted by the inclusion of its representative on the Preston Education Authority. The ideal of the Society was expressed in its official "Record" for April, 1903:—

"For the last six years half the householders (co-operators) of Preston have agreed to open evening schools each winter for the benefit, not merely of those belonging to the Society, but for *all* the young people in the town who chose to attend them, or adults whose education had been neglected. Time, money and thought have been freely expended, but we have never grudged the outlay of any of these valuable commodities; for we have fondly dreamt that we were building up a fair structure on a good and lasting foundation. We believed that the present and future generations of young people, through our efforts on their behalf, would, when they grew to man and womanhood, raise the standard of knowledge, honour and purity in our town."

The grant from the Board of Education in 1902-3 amounted to £1,000; in 1903-4 to £1,936. The Secretary reported that the average attendance for 1902-3 was 2,129, while the largest attendance on one evening was 2,492. In 1903-4 the average had increased to 2,500. This, says the Secretary, was probably not excelled by the record of any other classes in the kingdom. It may be noted that the average attendance at 33 Liverpool schools was, in 1903-4, 4,780. The estimated population of Liverpool in 1903 was 716,810, of Preston 114,404. The high average at Preston was no doubt to a great extent induced by a carefully graduated system of rewards, ranging from "thirty-one attendances, trip for a shilling" to "forty-two attendances

(highest possible), all fees returned, prize and trip free"; but this is a consideration that may be passed over in view of the fact that 712 students sat for the examination of the Lancashire and Cheshire Union in 1904, and of these 596 passed, 326 of them in arithmetic. Such excellent results fully justified the remarks of Sir William Tomlinson, who, taking "London" as his text at the close of the 1902-3 session, said:—

"It was evident that the evening continuation schools in Preston were supplying a great want in our English system of education. Sir John Gorst had devoted much time to the review of the work accomplished in the evening schools in connexion with the London Board Schools, and the result of his research had not been altogether satisfactory. Possibly this was due to the quality of the teaching in the London Board Schools; possibly it was not quite in touch with the future life of the scholars. Frequently there was a total break when they left the day schools, and the result was that what had been learned was quickly forgotten. A great difficulty was found in inducing these young people to attend the evening schools, or, when they did so, to pay proper attention. One reason for this probably was that they had had a hard day's work previously, and were half asleep, and unable to apply themselves to serious study. There was a want, too, of organisation, which evidently was not the case in Preston, and the Co-operative Society was to be congratulated on the serious manner in which its members and the Educational Committee had taken up the cause of education, and supplied the link in the chain which the half-time system so often broke. It was pleasing to find that the Society had been able to bring so many young people to see the advantage of a better education, and the harmony which existed between these classes and those of the Harris Institute was another excellent feature."

The record attendance for any one evening was made in the 1903-4 session, when 3,246 students attended, sixty-nine classes, an average of 47 students per class. The future of continuation school work in Preston has been placed beyond all doubt by the action of co-operators. The Secretary's manifesto, published upon the opening of the seventh session, ran as follows:—

“It is our pleasure to be able to record a very large increase in the number of students in attendance.

“As the new Education Authority in Preston do not feel themselves in a position to take over the classes at present, they have expressed a desire that we should continue them for the present session. What the future has in store for our classes we cannot say. Should the new Authority take them under their own control we will endeavour to assist them in every possible way.¹

“The future of evening classes will be very much what the students make it. It will be the duty of the new Authority to satisfy the educational requirements of our town; therefore we desire to impress upon all students who have enrolled themselves at our schools this session the importance of attending as regularly as possible, in order to show that there is a demand for such classes in Preston.

“It is a pleasing feature to notice the large number of youths and maidens who have lately left the day schools attending our evening schools. This is as it should be; we feel sure that when they arrive at years of discretion they will be better men and women for their early studies.”

1. The Schools were handed over to the Local Authority at the commencement of the 1905-6 session. Writing on May 22, 1906, the Director of Education for Preston gave the average attendance for the session as 1250 at 66 classes held in 16 schools. This showed a serious falling off from the average attendance of 2,500 in 1903-4, to be accounted for, no doubt, partly by the discontinuance of the system of rewards described above, as also by the necessary leakage occasioned by the transfer to a new authority and the withdrawal of the idea of the Co-operative Store behind the schools.

At St. Helens the Co-operative Society, which has carried on its classes for several years, decided to continue them under the existing Act. In 1903-4 300 students of upwards of sixteen years of age, attended the classes. The teachers are those chiefly employed in day schools, and the annual cost to the Society is from £80 to £100. The Secretary reports "that the classes have been very successful, and the students, who are mostly the sons and daughters of working men, have manifested great interest in the work, and the higher Government grant has always been earned."¹

A successful evening school, with an average attendance of 355 during 1903-4, is conducted by the Coventry Co-operative Society. The Government reports are consistently congratulatory in tone. Professor Hughes stated that "the schools constitute a distinct benefit to the whole city."² Among the subjects taught are "hand and eye training," "knowledge of common things," citizenship and literature. It is satisfactory to note the praise awarded to these classes by His Majesty's Inspector. The objects of the Society in carrying on these evening schools are clearly expressed:—

(a) To continue and supplement the elementary teaching of the day schools, and

(b) To form a connecting link between the day schools and the more advanced science, art, language and technology classes of the Municipal School of Art and Technical School.

Amongst other societies which have carried on evening school work earning Government grants are Mirfield (Yorks.), Langley Mill, Leigh (Lancs.), Oldham Industrial

1. An account of the Continuation Schools of St. Helens will be found on pp. 175-9 above.

2. Report on the Educational Resources of the City. Coventry, 1904.

(Lancs.), Rugby, and Rochdale Pioneers (Lancs.). The Oldham and Rochdale Societies discontinued their work some time ago, expressing the opinion that such work belonged to the municipality. It is not probable that any co-operative society will, in the future, set up continuation schools. At the Stratford Congress, May, 1904, Mr. W. R. Rae, Chairman of the Education Committee of the Co-operative Union, said:—"As to evening schools and science and art classes, I advise societies not to rush into the supply of either. The local authority for education may undertake to do it, and levy a rate for maintenance. Our duty is plain, viz., to see that they do theirs, and perhaps also to see that we are adequately represented on the body and our views made known." In the discussion which followed this view was endorsed, and the resolution passed at the conclusion contained these words:—"This Congress earnestly recommends societies to concentrate their efforts on the formation of co-operative character and opinion, rather than to carry on work or any portion of work which is more correctly the work of the local or municipal authority."

Although but few societies will be directly represented on local education authorities, and these probably confined to Lancashire, there is a strong tendency on the part of co-operators, as such, to strive at local elections for representation. This tendency will probably merge itself into the general movement for labour representation, which is making it possible for an increasing number of workmen to sit upon bodies that control education, from Parliament downwards. The Workmen's bench in the London County Council is well represented upon the working sub-committees on education. Very many working men are doing similar work in different parts of England. Labour men who condemned the provisions of the London

Bill before it was passed, are now endeavouring to secure that it shall be administered in the light of a progressive theory. They stand for smaller classes, and for free evening schools. Labour will not be parsimonious in educational policy. Imperial taxation must pay for it (*vide* resolution, Trade Union Congress, September, 1907). The defence it would have for the nation is "brains" in preference to "armaments," but it must again be remembered that the policy is expressed by the leaders, and not by the rank and file.

Now that apprenticeship is practically a dead letter, there is a strong feeling that something should take its place, and the something must surely be a system of education persisted in after the boy has begun to work at his craft. Very quickly after he begins work a boy forgets what he learned at school, and often at eighteen or nineteen turns to the evening school master and to the technical instructor, destitute of the elements of arithmetic. No greater waste in an educational system can be imagined than that which in ours takes place between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, or, it may be said, after fourteen; because many lads never even ask the technical schools to teach them elementary arithmetic. Out of fourteen lads who presented themselves at the book-keeping class of a London evening school in September, 1904, two were unable to decide the total cost of three articles at eleven shillings each. The ignorance of students who desire to study shorthand and typewriting, if not so obvious, is not less real. In one of the excellent Preston schools, the Inspector suggests that "it would be a great advantage if instruction in shorthand could be preceded by a thorough grounding in English."

It is not the healthy, strong, energetic boy who readily attends evening school; it is often the boy of unenterpris-

ing temperament. The former boy attends, if anything, the Ghurch Guild or the Lads' Brigade. He finds complete satisfaction in the social intercourse provided by the members of his cricket or football club. He follows healthy, clean courses, but is out of line with systematic intellectual training at the most critical period of his life.

It has been an interesting experience to work in a large office during the day, and to teach in a continuation school at night. The result has been to assure one over and over again that the lad who has really the greatest need of school seldom attends. The great majority of the boys who leave the elementary day schools never come on to the evening school at all, or only do so when they have forgotten much that they learnt, and find that their future advancement is blocked unless they recover lost ground. Many of the brightest boys are amongst those who thus stay away. One must confess that some of those who meritoriously come on to the evening school directly after leaving the day school are a rather tame and uninteresting type, though it seems a shame to say so. Sometimes a sharp junior, whose employer has suggested shorthand to him, is there; sometimes a man of mature years, who works patiently and frequently successfully, and is a real joy to the teacher. It sometimes happens that a social group which usually exists outside the school, drifts in, and an unpopular class, such as "commercial history," may suddenly find itself augmented by a round dozen. The great disadvantage is, that if one member leaves the whole group follows.

It has frequently been suggested that the type of education given in elementary schools to working lads, with its strict discipline and on occasion its personal coercion, induces a distaste for school surroundings that nothing but compulsion can be expected to overcome; and

it must not be forgotten that to a lad it is a great thing to gain even that moderate freedom to move about and talk which a workshop or an office affords. Such a state of affairs is in itself a new life.

But after all, cannot more boys and girls be led to attend evening schools irrespective of compulsion? We think they can, and a few suggestions as to the means may fitly close this inquiry. But first let us say that we do not blind our eyes to the disabilities placed in the way of many young people by the conditions of their employment. Only "compulsion," exercised through the employers, can remove such disabilities, and it is for this reason, chiefly, that we should support a measure of statutory obligation to remove them.

No scholars should be allowed to leave the day school without distinct attempts being made to ensure that they have ideas suitable to their age upon the importance of education.

First, they should possess the sheet-anchor of a clear knowledge as to the precise meaning and importance of the three R's. The door of the treasure-house of the world should be opened before them, and the key to it, they should understand, is education. It should be impressed upon them that they have hardly begun to "know"; that copy-book maxims and statements such as "knowledge is power" are profound truths. The distinct benefits of evening school education should be explained to them, together with the reasons why it has been set on foot, what it has done, and all in the light of the great principle that it is a boy's duty to use his brains for the sake of his country.

Secondly, the municipal spirit should be fostered; it is always ready to spring into growth. The evening school should be, as far as possible, the instrument of a social

institution for which the boy or girl has already a liking or respect. Evening schools in connexion with co-operative societies have been successful, in part because there was the idea of the store behind them. In like manner the idea of the municipality must be behind the school.' The experiment made by the late London School Board of teaching local history to scholars was a step in this direction.

Thirdly, the theory of discipline and the dignity of voluntarily submitting to it as *organisation* should be explained.

With these principles thoroughly instilled, there is no reason why the average boy should not normally pass to the evening school, especially if guilds, lads' brigades and clubs can be induced to work together with the education authority. Above all things boys and girls must never be urged to study merely for their own advancement. Those who have a personal ambition can be trusted to look well after their opportunities.

The curriculum of the evening schools should conform as nearly as possible to a line drawn somewhat higher than the line of daily work. For example, a carpenter's boy should not be taught merely to plane and chisel, but he should be educated in the true spirit of the craft. He should be steeped in its tradition, and shown old and beautiful work, being taught at the same time how to appraise it. The relation of his craft to other crafts and to the world of industry should be clearly demonstrated. Again, the commercial evening school, besides training the young clerk to be a good shorthand writer and a good book-keeper, should try to kindle his interest in economic questions and his sense of citizenship. Working lads must be educated as whole boys, not merely as sections. It is desirable that education authorities should arrange to have placed at

least once a session before evening scholars a clear statement as to the history, meaning and purpose of evening school education. This would tend to steady the attendance, because it would give definiteness of aim to pupils who previously lacked it. Evening schools should always have at least one room where workmen and boys can, without hindrance, work independently of the teacher—do homework in fact. Many homes in which respectable artisans live—not over-crowded—are inconvenient for the purpose. In two-room tenements one would imagine work to be impossible. A bright room—and the expectation that the responsible teacher would look in to solve the knotty problems—would help working men in their studies to an extent which they only could appreciate.

To carry out the reforms which these suggestions indicate would involve some expenditure of public money. It would become increasingly necessary that a staff of evening school teachers should be raised. The quality of the teaching in day and evening schools must suffer when the work is carried on by the same people. A number of business men teach in evening schools and, although they gather freshness and strength from the change of employment, the teaching and the teacher suffer if both teaching and business are persisted in. It is a present-day problem how to secure sufficient day school teachers. The greater problem of evening school teachers must inevitably be faced. Evening school teachers might suitably teach their *special* subjects in day schools for a portion of the day.

Working-class opinion is developing on the subject of further education, and the efforts of the Workers' Educational Association (office: 24 Buckingham Street, Strand, London), have been not without influence in giving definition to somewhat vague educational ideals. The chief

object of the Association is to arouse among the workers greater interest in higher education and to direct their attention to the facilities already provided. Its branches are at work ascertaining the needs and wishes of the workers, and in many places (notably in Rochdale, Reading, Birmingham and High Wycombe) have co-operated with the local authorities and with University organisations in securing the better provision of educational opportunities congenial to the industrial classes. At the Preston Co-operative Congress in 1907 a speaker thus described the aims and work of the Association:—

“Necessary as it is for England to develop, in every way that may be possible, the technical training of the worker for his work : necessary as it is that such training should be closely associated with the workshop and with the practical conditions of the trades ; we believe that side by side with this technical training, there should go, for the workers not less than for the leisured, an education in the Humanities, an education which touches the imagination, the heart and the conscience. The Workers’ Educational Association stands for this broad and humanising ideal, and in striving for that ideal it is being faithfully and unselfishly served. It has, moreover, a further claim on our regard. It does not emphasise educational differences : it seeks rather to appease and assuage them. It does not set itself up as a rival and as a competitor with other kinds of educational effort. On the contrary, it draws attention in each district to the various forms of educational opportunity which already exist. It brings together, to a united work, the isolated men and women who are ready to respond to the claims of education for social duty, and who wish to learn in order that they may be more effective in the work of social reform.”

ALBERT MANSBRIDGE.

CHAPTER XII.

The Rank and File in our Public Elementary Schools.¹

IN the recent enthusiasm for educational reform there is hope for the future, and yet there seems to me to be a class of children largely neglected—I mean those attending the public elementary schools. I do not ignore the “ladder to the University,” nor the generous schemes of scholarships provided for the fortunate few with brains and with a sufficiently advantageous environment to enable them to use these brains. We may, perhaps rightly, pride ourselves that we are beginning to make provision for the education of those who are to be in the future the sergeants, if not the captains of industry. We may, for the present, assume that these are receiving good training for their future work, and that the nation will in due time reap an interest of efficiency for the principal invested in their education. But there still remains the rank and file of the children of the nation, the 90, 95, or in some cases the 100 per cent. of the children beginning life in an elementary school. When the “capacity-catching” scheme has carried off the more intellectual children there still remains not only the larger number, but those constituting the nation’s greatest problem. “To him that hath shall be given” is exemplified in the child to whose ability there is added opportunity. “From him that hath not shall be taken away” is the fate of the school and of the child of ordinary type. The educational interests at stake in the

¹ The substance of one section of a lecture on “The Irreducible Minimum in Education,” delivered to the Fabian Society.

elementary school thus depleted of its cleverest children are too generally ignored by the public. Yet in London and elsewhere the right working of these schools is still of vital importance.

The children remaining in these schools fall into two divisions. In the first place there are the children under eleven or twelve years of age as yet undifferentiated, receiving in common the groundwork of education, the superstructure still undecided. The training of these children should, it seems to me, be not only as at present the main aim of the primary school but its only work. On the other hand, there are also at the present time in these schools the children above the age of eleven, who have been weighed in the scholarship balance and found wanting, who are to finish their education as elementary school children. These children of the older section have educational needs which deserve very careful treatment. They form a class distinct from the 'primary' children and are perhaps even more ready for a change in their training than the more favoured ones selected for 'secondary' education. They constitute the class on which I should like for the present to concentrate attention.

A slight provision is made for a small proportion of these children in the Higher Grade or Higher Elementary School; and this, it may be argued, affords the solution of the matter. By no means -- the more children that are taken away for higher education from the ordinary schools, the worse is the lot, educationally, of those that remain. They have very varying needs these children from eleven to fifteen, and yet in many cases they are not numerous enough to form more than one or two classes. Their work brings no *κῆδος* to the school, there is nothing to be gained professionally from special care bestowed on their training -- they are in a sense "nobody's children." And yet they

are the coming generation, the parents, potentially, of most of the succeeding generation; in fact they will largely constitute the London of the twentieth century. It is in this stage that our schools seem to me, as I think of the typical London boy or girl, to have failed in the past. In this stage there lies, from the increasing depletion for higher education, the great danger, and, at the same time, the great opportunity for the future.

Among these boys and girls are the admitted failures, the semi- or wholly-defiant, roughly talking, coarsely acting ones—whose fourteenth birthday is welcomed by themselves as a release from school restraint, by their parents as the full entrance into the wage-earning period, and even by the most conscientious teacher as a relief from ever-present responsibility and fruitless anxiety. They seem to carry on the reckless, savage irresponsibility of the child stage of development, and to add to it the lower grade powers of youth without the control of the dawning sense of reason. Others, a second class, hardly less discouraging, pass through and out of our schools without appearing to reach any degree of power or life. And what even of the successes? the bright well-drilled, intelligent boys and girls? They are found later in the lower clerkships, and as intelligent warehousemen, or skilled workers, as shophands and typists—passable in their business hours, but in their recreations hardly more refined than their duller comrades who are the drudges of the London labour market. Surely some one has blundered!

The schools cannot do everything. It is unfair to lay on them responsibility which belongs to the crushing influence of the machinery of industry and commerce, and to the deadening environment of lower and even middle-class London life. And yet under different conditions of organisation and administration much might be done.

There must be some powers of body and mind to which between the ages of eleven and fourteen appeal can be made, some faculty which can be so developed as to give boys and girls an interest in something outside themselves and their animal needs, a respect for themselves and their bodies which shall show itself in stronger and purer lives. To these powers and faculties, it is the duty of the School to appeal.

Improved teaching in the 'primary' part of the school, such as should become possible even under present conditions if the "Suggestions to Teachers" now issued by the Education Department are adopted, such as will be still more possible when the physical needs of the child are met by suitable food and clothing, by the opportunity for exercise and cleanliness afforded by a daily bathe or swim - will lighten the task of the older section. Yet there will always remain special problems very different from the problems of earlier school life.

These children (12 to 14 or 15) are as different from those of the primary stage (8 to 12) in the treatment they require, as they are in size and build of body. And even their change in size and form does not indicate at all adequately the deeper changes physical and psychic. The earlier period has been one of but slow growth for the fundamental bones and muscles of the body, whilst the accessory muscles, *e.g.*, those of hands and fingers, face and throat have been at a most susceptible stage for training in accuracy of movement, manipulation and speech. On the other hand, the period under consideration is one of rapid increase in height and weight for both boys and girls, the most active growth-period coming a little earlier for girls (11—13) than in the case of boys (13—15). It is again, as it was at the Kindergarten age, the turn of the larger muscles—a fact which indicates that there should be

a corresponding change in employment. Much of the work of the smaller muscles requiring fine muscular adjustment which was rightly undertaken in the primary stages may now, we are told, be harmful to the nervous system if unduly pressed.

The brain, which had almost reached its full size at the age of about seven years, now practically ceases growth in size, and prepares for that change in complexity of structure which corresponds to the power of reasoning—a power which may still be considered, as it was in the days of Aristotle, to be little developed till about the age of fourteen. Surely there is in this psycho-physiological fact an indication that when provision has been made for exceptional cases, nothing is gained by pressing on the average child an intellectual training for which he is not yet ready. The failure of the ordinary school course already alluded to in the case of the average town child bears out this view.

The problem before us is to consider what training should, for the typical child, replace ordinary bookwork. Unfortunately, no such course of training seems yet to have been framed on an adequate scale. Unfortunately, too, those whose duty it is to devise such a scheme, have not as a rule the experience requisite. Being themselves highly endowed intellectually, they have not passed through such a stage of intellectual pause in their own history; nor, as framers and administrators of codes and regulations, do they come into touch directly with those whose school-days end in this dreary twilight. The pity of it for the children whom we are considering, is that with the age of fourteen closes their intellectual opportunity for life. This is perhaps some excuse for the stress that has in the past been laid on the would-be intellectual type of education. But alas! the well-meant kindness has merely caused a re-action. Not only has the door been

closed, but against it lies the great stone of the school-formed distaste for mental application. The same result is to be seen in much the same form in all walks of life, but in other cases the door of intellectual hope is not so early closed.

Two interesting questions rather apart from our main consideration, though not without bearing upon it, may be raised here. Their solution is left to the reader. In the first place, is it entirely due to different endowment of brain power, that intellectual life is at such different levels of intensity in different people? Secondly, do we find here the reason for the zest, unparalleled to-day, shown by the untaught artisan of the thirties and forties for matters political, scientific and intellectual? the reason for the emptiness deplored in our Evening Continuation Schools and the cold reception of University Extension by the working classes, whilst many men and women of the past generation, without 'schooling,' have educated themselves even in the world of books?

The first step towards solving our problem would be to recognise that a period of special importance has been reached, and to transfer from the primary school, not only, as at present, the children destined for secondary and higher elementary schools, but those also who are unprepared for education according to either of these types. This would mean the formation of a new kind of school; although re-adjustment of departments might obviate the necessity for new buildings. It would mean a new departure—the recognition that it is worth the nation's while to give careful thought and special attention to the apparently less gifted of her children. The nation needs that each child should be developed just in the manner that he requires; and it may be that from the more slowly maturing brains of these children there may be produced as good

an adult type as from more precocious ones. To get the best out of these slowly developing brains needs, in view of the stress of the economic struggle, educational foresight and special care.

To such a new kind of school, the term secondary should, I think, be applied, as well as to the schools now known as Higher Elementary. The term 'secondary' now connotes schools which provide, at least, a regular course for pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age. The practical limit of the elementary school career whether in an ordinary or higher elementary school is fifteen years, an optional limit it is true, (the compulsory age not going beyond fourteen) but one which should in the near future be universal.¹ Hence the crucial distinction between the Elementary and the Secondary School is this one year of school life from 15 to 16. Far be it from me to underrate its value, or minimise its effect on curriculum and methods. But the distinction is a small one, and artificial, as compared with the great physical and psychological one which separates the child of primary age from the boy or girl entering on the stage preparatory to adolescent development—ready, that is to say, for the secondary stage of his education.²

This is not merely a question of name. It involves an alteration of focus, perhaps even a new way of looking at things. It involves the recognition of the right of every child to education, not merely in a vague sense, but to the education fitted to his age and capabilities—(1) to

1. The Education Act, 1902 (Section 22 (2)), limits the power to provide instruction under the Elementary Education Acts, except where they expressly provide to the contrary, to scholars who at the close of the school year will be not more than sixteen years of age. But, with the consent of the Board of Education, a local authority may extend this limit in the case of any public elementary school if no suitable higher education is available within a reasonable distance of the school.

2. The recognition of fifteen as "the normal leaving age" for Secondary Schools in certain areas under certain exceptional conditions strengthens my case, and takes away the last argument for maintaining a distinction in name between schools for children in the same stage of educational development. [See Regulations for Secondary Schools, §2b, 1907.]

primary, *i.e.*, undifferentiated, education up to the age of about eleven or twelve; (2) to secondary education of the type which, having due regard to the time which he is to remain at school, makes the best possible use of that time for the development of his powers. For the child who can be kept at school till the age of sixteen either by his municipality or by his parents, this will be found in the Secondary School. For the more intellectual of the children who must leave school at fifteen it may be found in the really Secondary School now known as Higher Elementary; for all others the new type of Secondary School now to be considered must make careful provision.

Let me now indicate something of the lines on which such a school might, in the first case, be planned for London or one of the larger towns, leaving later developments and variations to develop as experience is gained. It is assumed that a good foundation, physically and mentally has been laid in the primary school; and that (let me repeat it) the more intellectual children have been drafted off into the Secondary Schools, whether of the ordinary or of the Higher Elementary type, leaving the majority, the rank and file, for the new kind of Secondary School. Such a school must deal largely with concrete things, the everyday objects of various departments of life, not in order that their study should be an end in itself, but that it may at once stimulate the mental powers and afford them matter to work on. In the case of these scholars the brain requires stimulation through the senses in a manner unnecessary for those with greater power of abstract thought. The object of the school being to send forth citizens who shall be responsible members of society leading thoughtful, self-respecting lives, the spirit of responsibility and self-reliance must be fostered wherever possible. Since these children are to go into the world

early they should, earlier than in other schools, be trained to govern and control themselves, not merely to keep order under the eye of a teacher. Such training will not be so difficult of attainment as at first sight appears, if the work of the school is so contrived that the children may enjoy it for its own sake. If we succeed in finding the right work, this will almost necessarily be the case.

Since, as will be seen later, mental work is to arise from technical in the new kind of school under consideration in this paper, there can be but little doubt that for boys and girls the curriculum should be different. Whatever the value of co-education for all, under ideal conditions or even under present conditions, for the somewhat similar mental training of intellectual boys and girls, co-education seems to me unsuitable for boys and girls of the type under consideration as things are now in our great towns with their complex economic conditions, and with the staffing at present allowed for schools.

As regards boys, I must, to a large extent, content myself with general principles, leaving details to those who have specialised in the training of boys. Much might be learned from industrial and reformatory schools, perhaps even from the experiments in vacation schools.

In physical training, it must be remembered that this is a period for the larger rather than for the smaller muscles to develop. Who does not know the awkwardness and angularity of both boys and girls at some part of this stage unless the right exercise is provided? The small muscles must not be wearied with fine manipulation; while for the larger there should be a continuation of the free exercises and daily swim of the primary school, with the addition of suitable gymnasium work. In connexion with this there might be simple instruction in physiology,

dietetics, and the laws of health. Wood and metal work might be taken up as well as simple drawing from nature and design; these things lending themselves to simple mathematical calculation, and, above all, tending towards good and beautiful craftsmanship. In music, the work of the primary school in teaching class-singing and giving the opportunity of listening to good music should be continued.

Intellectual work should be comparatively simple, but with difficulties to be honestly faced. The nature lesson of the primary school would give place to work in a classroom or laboratory specially fitted for a simple physical course, in connexion with which a few fundamental mathematical ideas would be developed, geometrically and arithmetically. This would involve simple use of easy decimals and percentages—the whole of the arithmetic necessary, unless practice in accurate addition of money were considered advisable.

The ordinary history or geography lesson might resolve itself into an introduction to the growth of the British Empire and its institutions, with special reference to London (or the place where the school is situated) and the duty of its citizens. The Guildhall, Westminster Abbey and places of similar historic value, with others of local interest, should each be visited once or twice in the three or four years' course; and some form of election, parliamentary or municipal, might once a year be carried out to initiate the boys into the mysteries of voting-paper and ballot-box.

The study of English should aim at making wholesome literature a pleasure. Opportunity for listening to good reading, or for browsing in a library, might as a rule replace the ordinary reading lesson; whilst occasional

elocution lessons would discover the dramatic powers of some and improve the enunciation of all.

Here in literary as before in manual and musical work, we may cross the boundary line and pass into the regions of art. In each case the boy must be put in the path towards the best in art, and even led some steps of the way so that he may, if he have eyes, see something of its charms, and that he may not leave school ignorant of the possibilities of his nature.

For girls—a considerable part of the course would be similar. Their science, however, and much of their mental work would centre round the domestic rather than the mechanical arts. As at present, there would be laundry- and needle-work, also cookery; hygiene and dietetics being taught in connexion with these subjects. A little untechnical physiology might also be linked to this work, and to the physical exercise of the girls. For this there should be simple gymnasium work, and a course including organised games and well-balanced movements, leading up to suitable forms of dancing. The revival of the old-fashioned custom of reading aloud during the practice of needlework would give the opportunity of making acquaintance with a considerable range of interesting literature. As I write there arises the pleasant recollection of my schoolgirl introduction in this way to *Evangeline*, the *Idylls of the King*, *Motley's Rise of the Dutch Republic*, *Ethics of the Dust*, and other books for which there was no other place in the school course.

In mathematics the demands would be even simpler than in the case of boys. The keeping of accounts and the calculation of interest, the measurement of areas and working to scale in garment cutting, the calculation of dietaries and of prices—these seem to be all that is necessary.

Direct preparation for the responsibilities of maternity

is often demanded from the schools. But I think that their work will be done if, in addition to the rousing of the girl's mental faculties, they teach her the care of her own person and of her household surroundings. The former is provided for in the work already mentioned: the latter would be possible in a domestic laboratory or living room of the following type. The capital cost of such a laboratory would not be great, and only a small amount, perhaps 20s. to 50s. per annum; would be needed for upkeep.

This class-room would be fitted as a living room, and used as such during afternoon work. It should, in the first place, with certain limitations, be furnished according to the judgment of the senior girls, and should be kept in order and repair for a year at a time by successive classes of girls. Cheap oilcloth, such as would doubtless be selected for the floor, would contrast with the good linoleum now supplied to some rooms in the schools—chairs and tables of the ordinary household type of the neighbourhood, used along with a few simple well-made ones specially provided, would soon show the weakness of bad workmanship. In the first year the allowance for upkeep would supply curtains, crockery (for use at school functions, *e.g.*, for an At Home to parents in this room), a kettle, and such conveniences as shelving. As time went on, the allowance would, by consultation and decision of the class in charge, be spent in replacing and mending worn-out furniture and utensils; and the lesson of cutting one's coat according to the cloth might thus be practically inculcated. Accurate accounts would be kept for comparison and criticism from year to year. The keeping of these accounts would in itself be a useful exercise, but their importance would lie in the possibility of their teaching the value of quality in comparison with quantity, showing the frequent connexion between the cheap and the nasty, and proving the truth of

the not sufficiently familiar saying, "All that glitters is not gold."

As sketched, the scheme for the proposed new Secondary Schools may appear dogmatic, but it is put forward merely as suggestive. It is by no means ideal, but nothing to meet existing conditions could be so. It is admittedly limited in intellectual scope, but surely the admission of our future citizens to the ante-chamber of the temple of thought is something—at present they seem repelled from even approaching its precincts. It is far from my intention to set up artificial barriers or to exclude any from the privileges of intellectual life. The great joy, the one all-compensating moment for the teacher is when he welcomes some young initiate into the brotherhood of thought. He must not be deprived of one such opportunity. But for the most part, the children sitting in the market place do not respond. We pipe unto them and they do not dance; we mourn and they lament not. Why? Because our instruments are strange, our speech unfamiliar. We must no longer speak in an unknown tongue, the language of books, we must learn the language of the market place, and introduce it into our schools. Then there will be a response. We shall be able to build up from recruits, at present irresponsive, an army whose rank and file shall be fit for the work of our generation; whose successors shall be worthy citizens of "no mean city."

M. O'BRIEN HARRIS.

CHAPTER XIII.

Trade Schools for Boys and Girls. Their Economic Value and their Place in a National System of Education.¹

DURING the last few years there has been a general consensus of opinion that better results would be obtained if some reforms were made in our elementary school education and system, so that it would form a really effective preparation for the battle of life, especially for those children who may take up industrial work. The time is now ripe for the discussion of this question and that of the education which may be given beyond the elementary school stage which will have a bearing on the future work of the pupils. There is an increasing number of persons in all grades of life who feel from experience that in the education given in elementary and secondary schools much care has been given to the preparation of children for clerical occupations, and too little attention has been paid to the requirements of children intending to enter various trades and industries. Our education has been too bookish, has unduly increased the taste for mere clerical work, has not impressed the children with ideas of the dignity of labour, and by some is thought to have helped in some way to increase the number of unemployed. The bright children have had opportunities of being passed on to a Secondary School if they wished to be prepared for Offices, Civil Service, teaching and other professions, but if they desired to enter trades or industries they were left broadly speaking

1. Part of this chapter was read as a paper at the meeting of the British Association (Section L) at Leicester, August, 1907.

without scholarships to assist them or proper schools to enter in which they could continue their education on practical lines that would help them in their future work.

I fear that this is the result of an idea that a sound education preparing children for skilled trades is not sufficiently educational because it is of a practical character. But surely mathematics and science useful for the young engineering workman and builder are at least of equal value to the same subjects when taught for purposes of the counting house or for examinations, or for the teaching profession and universities, even though the subjects may be treated in some cases in a more elementary form. Stocks and shares are in my opinion not educationally on the same level as geometrical problems worked out in wood or other material in connexion with manual work.

The training which leads to being an efficient workman is not in any derogatory sense a "bread and butter subject" any more than the humanities themselves, if the former is properly given, and with the right aims in view. In all schools broad views of life should be given, but in no day-school can the teachers do as much for the pupils, as is or should be done by the home life, the hours of leisure there spent and the religion there taught. The contribution of the school to this ideal of a broad or humane outlook on life comes from the character of the men teaching there, their attitude towards the work and subject matter of their lessons, and the general tone of the School. What are called utilitarian subjects may form the chief part of the curriculum, but these may be taught in the humane spirit, even as philosophy and history may be taught in the utilitarian spirit, that is as a means of piling up marks and securing coveted positions in the professional world. The humane and utilitarian subjects of education are not mutually exclusive; each has the power to make noble

characters, with high ideals of work; and education has no other object.

We have disposed then of the objection that clerical occupations and training are more educational than manual; and may repeat our criticism that for the latter our elementary schools at present do but little, if anything. Some people say that the country is losing its industries, and there is much diversity of opinion as to the reason. One thing is certain, that unless our young people are trained to the highest point of efficiency in industrial work it may come about in the course of a few years that we shall not be as well able to cope with foreign competition as regards the quality of work which we produce. Given sound training, the workpeople of this country will, I am sure, be as well able to produce good work in the future as in the past, and be as eagerly sought after as ever before.

We have now to face new conditions in our industrial system. Before the introduction of machinery and subdivision of labour the older system of trade instruction was beneficial, in so far as it provided by apprenticeship a broad training in all branches of a trade, and we are all proud of the old race of British workers. It is different now, and something wider in our educational work is needed to give a broad basal training to those who are to be skilled workmen. It is felt that training is required which will not only discourage young workmen from being content with a knowledge of one or at most two branches of a trade whatever it may be, but will render them more efficient all round men, able to cope with the ever-varying conditions of manufacturing industries.

Many members of "Unemployed Committees" have stated that the larger number of cases with which they have had to deal were persons unable to do any work which required skill or special training. People who are

only capable of doing one thing and cannot readily turn to other branches of the same trade are practically unskilled.'

Probably this question of unemployment is a little more acute each year, seeing the number of boy clerks who are turned adrift at the age of eighteen, either because of their own inefficiency or because of the insufficient number of vacancies in the higher branches of the Civil Service. Such boys find themselves heavily handicapped for the rest of their lives. It is too late to think of employment other than clerical; they must accept work such as that of a light porter or junior warehouseman, which is a wretched prospect for middle age. That attempts are being made to deal with this side of the question is shown by the formation of Apprentice and Skilled Employment Committees, by Reports of various Education Authorities, and by the establishment of a few Trade Schools.

I would mention three or four of the interesting reports and pamphlets which have been issued within the last year or two; that of the London County Council Education Committee on questions affecting Apprenticeship, that of Mr. Edrie Bayley, late of L.C.C., on Industrial Training in Elementary Schools, and the Report of a Committee appointed by the Gloucestershire Education Committee to consider certain proposals for the creation of an Apprenticeship Fund and Labour Bureau. Also Circular 604 issued by the Board of Education.

The Apprenticeship Report of the L.C.C. is now so well known to all interested in the subject that I need only state that it dealt with the decay of apprenticeship and with the question of providing training in Day Trade Schools to assist children to enter skilled trades better prepared and at a later age than they do now. Due consideration was given to the founding of scholarships.

Mr. Bayley's pamphlet, of which an amended edition has just been issued, is an extremely illuminating account of the present defects in our system, and is a plea for co-ordinating the school work from the first with the natural surroundings and future of the children. He draws attention in a pertinent way to the advantages now possessed by children in Industrial and Special Schools. The Gloucestershire Report is well worth reading as it deals with several important questions and schemes. The Board of Education Circular 604 is a Memorandum to the Inspectors of Technical Institutions, Evening Schools, and Schools of Art. The Circular describes how in the main the funds devoted to technical instruction may be rendered more profitable by co-operation between teachers, employers and employees. This naturally deals chiefly with evening or part time classes, and does not touch upon the day school training.

In fact there is a general feeling of unrest, due probably to two main causes, the failure and almost complete disappearance of the apprenticeship system, and the consequent unemployment of the large number of unskilled workers. As regards the encouragement of apprenticeship, there are in London many Committees with this object in view, notably the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association, co-ordinating the experience of all the rest, the Charity Organisation Skilled Employment Committee, the Whitechapel Apprenticeship Committee, the N. Lambeth and Southwark Apprenticeship Committees, and other local Committees founded for the purpose of preventing, by funds and influence, boys and girls from falling into the ranks of unskilled labour. There are also corresponding Committees in Liverpool, Hove, Hastings, Oxford, and Cambridge.¹ Their method is, generally speak-

1. See Chapter XV.

ing, to choose carefully suitable firms, to help when necessary with the premiums, and to keep watch over the apprentices and employers to see that both are doing their part. But such efforts as these, excellent as they are in intention and result, can only touch the fringe of this question. The vast number of children leaving school every year, the number of firms where this kind of apprenticeship has died out, never to be revived, but where new hands are constantly needed, the sub-division of labour more and more prevalent, all require that there shall be a preliminary or supplementary education, normal and open to every child who intends to take up manual labour, put somehow into the English system of Education. The outcome of this belief is seen in the Trade Schools.

I deal with London chiefly, because here I have personal experience, and because London developments are very significant. There the problems in question are most insistent, and in consequence more effort has been made to grapple with them. I know from correspondence that there is in the provinces a growing interest in such schools and many are soon to be founded, so that the experience of Londoners may be of value. The provinces, except in the very large towns, are not blessed, or cursed, with the same quantity of enormous factories and huge distributing agencies where machine-like accuracy, not intelligence, are demanded of the workers, and where for various reasons one has little chance of becoming efficient all round. The part time school has been useful in the country, where definite industries are localised; in London, where they are very much varied and spread over a large area, the problem is not so easy. The number of young men attending evening classes is a very tiny fraction of the great army of workers, increasing every day under the influx of men from the provinces, and suffering from their superior

efficiency. How many of those holding the higher positions in London firms are London men? They come from the country, where there are still smaller shops, and men can learn more than one branch of their trades. This fact was clearly brought out in the London County Council Reports on Apprenticeship and the Building Trade.

In London then we have three types of trade school, endeavouring to remedy this inequality—(a) Trade Schools for Girls, (b) Technical Day Schools for boys giving a special training in certain trades, *e.g.*, the Paddington and Poplar Engineering Schools, and the Bakery School at the Borough Polytechnic Institute; (c) Preparatory Trade Schools for Boys, such as the Stanley Trade School and those at Shoreditch and at the Borough Polytechnic Institute. I do not mention the Industrial Schools, Poor Law Schools and Special Schools for physically defective children in all of which there is a certain amount of trade instruction given, because they lie outside the scope of my paper.

(a) Girls' Trade Schools. There are Schools for Dress-making at the Woolwich Polytechnic and the L.C.C. Paddington Technical Institute; for Upholstery and Ready-made Clothing at the L.C.C. Shoreditch Technical Institute; for Dressmaking, Ladies' Tailoring, and Corset-making at the L.C.C. Westminster Technical Institute (now in temporary premises); and Waistcoatmaking, Dressmaking, and Upholstery at the Borough Polytechnic Institute. The training in these Schools is highly specialised, and modelled more or less on that given in the French Schools. These are at present the only trades open to girls. They enter the School between the ages of 14 and 15 for a course of 2 years, in most cases holding a L.C.C. Scholarship with maintenance grant of £8 to £12, though a few paying pupils are taken. In my own Institute each of the three trades mentioned has an Advisory Committee

of trade experts, which examines the work each month, advises the Governors where necessary, and assists in placing out the pupils. Many of them have found suitable employment, and have made excellent starts towards being efficient, well-paid workwomen. At all the Institutes I have named these Advisory Committees exist, and in all of them the hours are the same, 22 hours practical work, the remainder being given to English subjects and drawing.

(b) Special Schools for Engineering. Two Schools of this character are held in the L.C.C. Technical Institutes at Poplar and Paddington. They provide a two years' course of instruction for boys leaving the Higher Elementary or Secondary Schools at not less than 14 years of age, who hope to attain to positions of responsibility as foremen or managers, and to whom a preliminary scientific and technical training is necessary before entering works or offices. Boys from elementary schools may be admitted, if on examination they appear to possess the requisite education. The instruction here is much less specialised in the direction of trade practice than is the case with the Girls' Trade Schools, and is not intended as a substitute for apprenticeship or workshop practice. The fees are at Paddington £2. 5s., and £4. 10s. at Poplar. The Council offers 25 Scholarships for boys between 14 and 16 giving free tuition and maintenance grant of £10 the first year, and £15 the second.

(c) Preparatory Trade Schools.

(1) Stanley Trade School. This was built by Mr. W. F. Stanley at South Norwood, and only opened in March last; it is a public-spirited effort and an experiment which will be watched with interest. The primary object of the School is to teach manual dexterity by plenty of workshop practice. It is suggested that the expense of practical instruction may be defrayed by the making of

boxes of bricks and toys, such as now come from Germany, and also models of trucks, cranes, etc. The material to be used is fragments of wood now either burnt or wasted in the works of Mr. Stanley. Fee 1s. a week, first year; free when parents are out of work.

One or two experimental schools of this type have been established recently by the Gloucestershire and other County Councils.

(2) Shoreditch School. This has a definite bias towards the cabinet-making, furniture and other woodworking trades. The boys who enter must be working in Standard VI. or a higher standard, and between 12 and 13 years of age. Briefly, the instruction is as follows:

	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
English Subjects	4½ ...	3 ...	1½
Art Drawing and Modelling ...	6 ...	4½ ...	3
Mathematics	6 ...	3 ...	1½
Science and Technical Lectures	6 ...	4½ ...	4½
Workshop and Drawing Office..	7½ ...	*15 ...	*19½

* 6 hours Metal Work.

The fees are £1. 10s. a year.

Scholarships tenable at this School are offered by the London County Council to boys who must not be less than 13 years of age, and are working in Standard VI. or a higher standard. The Scholarships are for two years, but may be extended for a third, provided that the holder will not be over 16 at the end of the year. They provide free tuition and maintenance, £10 under 14 years, £15 between 14 and 15, and £20 between 15 and 16 years of age.

(3) Borough Polytechnic Institute Day School. Here boys must be over 12 years of age and have passed in the subjects of at least Standard VI. They must have made up their minds to enter some handicraft trade, and not a clerical occupation. The course of instruction covers three years, and in a few cases of boys showing special aptitude

four years. At present the school course is planned principally for the engineering and various metal-working trades, as the majority of boys appear to choose this line of work. It is hoped to prepare for other trades as the school develops and the demand enlarges itself in other fields. Early specialisation is avoided, for all boys take the same subjects in the first year. In the second year the course is slightly varied to suit the requirements of boys who have decided upon their future trades; for example, those wishing to enter the bookbinding, bakery, printing, or other trades will devote more time to art subjects or chemistry than those who intend to be engineers; while in the third year a more real specialisation to particular trades or groups of trades is allowed. The fee is £3 a year, and the London County Council has just given twenty Scholarships tenable at the School for three years for boys who will be 13 years of age on entering the School. The Scholarships give free tuition, and a grant of £6 for the first two years and £15 for the third year. There are also Free Tuition Scholarships, and other Scholarships giving free education with £8 in the second year and £11 in the third year for boys in Council Schools residing in the district. The following is a summary of the hours of instruction:—

	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
Mathematics	5	4	4½
English Subjects, including Special Lectures and Visits to Museums and Works	6	3	3
Science	4	4½	6
Mechanical Drawing	4	5	5
Art	2	1½	—
French	—	3	3
Workshop Instruction.....	5	5	7½
Physical Exercises	1½	1½	1
	<hr/> 27½	<hr/> 27½	<hr/> 30

Due attention is paid throughout the three years to physical development; gymnastics, and in the summer term organised games in the Institute's field, are provided. An Advisory Committee has been formed in order to link the work of the School with the industries of the neighbourhood, so that boys on leaving may be fit to enter works, and be readily admitted to them.

We have now to note the special features of the three types of school sketched above. The instruction in the Girls' Trade Schools is highly specialised trade instruction. They are as yet in the stage of an experiment, and it has to be seen whether they are the best form of school for girls of all grades of ability, and not only for those training for some highly skilled branch of trade. The great specialisation is less dangerous in the case of girls than in that of boys, because the basis of all women's trades is needlework, of which they learn the principles more or less thoroughly in their school work and at home, while the basis of the boys' trades, manual accuracy and skill, does not fall to the lot of all boys in the same way. Moreover, the recognised periods of learning are in the girl's work-room much shorter than in the boy's. The instruction really only takes the place of apprenticeship and leads to the stage of a good improver or an assistant, who will, however, be competent later to hold a higher position as a skilled worker. The danger of specialised instruction, *i.e.*, that of turning out more workers than are required in the market, has to be avoided, and is done in the case of the Girls' Schools I have described, by the active co-operation of Advisory Committees of trade experts, who are closely acquainted with the labour market. In my own opinion, the specialised instruction would be of more benefit to the girls if they had a year's preliminary training to bridge the work of the elementary school over to the trade work;

this could be given in the Institute from the ages of 13 to 14, but far better in the elementary school during the girls' last year, by which time would be saved, and a thorough co-ordination of ideas and work secured. The maintenance scholarship system is rendered necessary by the later age at which girls are enabled to start work, for they may not enter the Trade School before 14, and in the case of poor parents this may be a hardship.

We now turn to the (b) type, the Paddington and Poplar Engineering Schools. No doubt these form a useful part of our educational scheme, but it will be seen that they only deal with a tiny fraction of our future trade workers. They are intended for boys leaving the higher elementary schools and secondary schools, in fact for the "stream of boys" in the words of the L.C.C. Apprenticeship Report in speaking of scholarships "who, having won Junior County Scholarships and completed their course at the Secondary School, will compete for Trade Scholarships either from choice or from inability to win Intermediate Scholarships, and from this class of students will be drawn the future managers and foremen of industrial undertakings." Intermediate Scholarships are competed for by boys between 14 and 17, so it will be seen that some of such trade scholars will enter industrial life very late. In my opinion boys leaving school at a later age than 16, even if they succeed at that age in getting taken into a workshop, may very possibly be no better off than their fellows starting at 16; they may only be junior draughtsmen for many years. Older boys with marked talents may do themselves no harm professionally by entering the technical school at such a late age, as they will pass on to the technical college or perhaps the University; but these can be only the very few. Parents of limited means will do well to recognise this fact. It would have been surely

better for them to make up their minds at the beginning whether their sons were going into clerical occupations or the teaching profession or not, before competing for the junior county scholarships. This broad decision can be made at an early age, and many places would thereby be saved in the secondary schools. Junior County Scholars who after a year or two are "from choice" going to turn into technical students, or who are not likely to gain intermediate scholarships should not be encouraged to enter secondary schools. In fact, great care should be exercised not to allow boys to postpone the entry into the workshop too long. The conditions of work in most of these make entry after 16 disadvantageous to boys and employers. Boys do not care to adapt themselves to workshop conditions at the comparatively late age; they dislike going back to the beginning, which they must do if they are to be "foremen and managers" of the best kind; and most certainly they must do so if they have not the character to attain to these positions, which all cannot have, and many in consequence remain in the position simply of skilled workers. On the age question from the point of view of entry into works, there is much to be learned from letters of employers quoted in Mr. Blair's Report in the Report of the Mosely Commission.

Schools of the Paddington and Poplar Institute type, then, appear to cater for a picked class—those who can venture to continue their studies to an age which we have seen is dangerously late for the mass of skilled workers. They receive boys who come from Higher Elementary and Secondary Schools, with a few of the best boys from the primary schools. We still need something for the great mass of workers, with no specially marked scientific or other talents, who nevertheless must not be allowed to become the unskilled or defectively trained men, for want of the proper facilities for foundation science and trade training.

Schools of the type of the Day School for Woodwork at Shoreditch and the Technical Preparatory School in my own Institute are, in my opinion, the best fitted and, under modern conditions of employment, the safest for the great mass of pupils of average ability. They avoid the dangers of too early specialisation, and so plan their courses as to give the children an opportunity of leaving at an age when they will take their places naturally in the workshop, with plenty of the fundamental knowledge which gives men of character the chance of raising themselves to the coveted position of foreman, and can be increased to an indefinite extent at evening classes. At the Borough School boys with no special aptitude are prepared to enter the rank and file of the workers, and encouraged to become thoroughly efficient in that line, not to aspire after posts as inefficient draughtsmen or designers. Boys who show signs of exceptional ability may stay a fourth year and specialise after the age of 16, but this is never allowed unless it is quite clear that their future will not be prejudiced by it. Care is exercised lest boys and parents be misled into the belief that all are destined to be foremen or managers; it is pointed out that all must begin at the beginning, and by their own character and perseverance those possessing grit and tact will rise in time. A great mistake would be made in restricting such schools as these to boys who already show signs of more than ordinary ability. Their object is to make the vast mass of workmen really intelligent students of their trades, starting from the very beginning with a broad outlook and an acquaintance with the fundamental principles underlying the work, which will, it is hoped, save them for ever from sinking into the rut of unthinking routine, and from being incapable of movement from one branch of trade to another, should industrial conditions so require. Boys who

enter works in the neighbourhood are urged to continue their attendance at the building with which they have already become familiar, by joining evening classes. The fact is, we need scientifically trained men at the bottom as well as at the top; workmen trained broadly will be more independent of change, and worth more, than the narrow specialist "one-branch" worker who is but little removed from the unskilled worker. It is a fallacy to imagine that sound training on scientific lines is not needed for our trades and industries because of the introduction of machinery and sub-division of labour. On the contrary, these are causes which render such training more necessary than ever both for our industrial welfare and for the mental and bodily welfare of the individual workers themselves.

In support of this view I have the opinions of members of Advisory Committees on Plumbing and Boot and Shoe Manufacture, of which I am a member, and I may quote from a letter written by Mr. Henderson, a manufacturer of boots and shoes in Leicester, who says in referring to a proposed scheme of examination:—

"During all my experience there has been a scarcity of educated, trained men, capable of rising to the positions of foremen, salesmen and managers, and the dearth is just as great at the present time as ever, taking into account the enormous expansion of the trade. If the City and Guilds of London Institute can see their way to adopt a standard of examination laid down, I am convinced that it will improve the education and intelligence of our students, and I am confident that it will improve the training of men for the higher positions for which there is an ever-increasing demand. There are many firms who would pay much higher salaries to in-

telligent, well-trained men, but the difficulty is to obtain them. With the ever-increasing sub-division of labour the boot trade will present greater opportunities in future to trained men of industry and ability."

Mr. Callard, a Master Baker of Leicester, a Vice-President of the National Association of Master Bakers and Confectioners, Examiner to the City and Guilds of London Institute, and a Member of the Advisory Committee of the Bakery School in my own Institute, has expressed to me similar opinions regarding the Bakery and Confectionery trades; and I could quote to the same effect many persons engaged in other trades.

It is interesting and instructive to trace the evolution of trade education (under State management) in this country, and to note the indecision of policy that has prevailed, now encouraging the encroachments of the purely bookish, and now of the manual, ideals of education. It is in this connexion that we shall see the part played by the Higher Elementary School.

For the last 30 years we seem to have in a haphazard way been trying to give better opportunities to the future industrial worker, and we are still in the thick of the struggle. First in 1872, as one result of the experience gained through the teaching of science and art subjects in the evening, the Science and Art Department created a special order of classes called Organised Science Schools, in order to encourage systematic courses of scientific instruction, chiefly in day schools, the work of which followed the ordinary elementary school course. In 1895 there was an improvement in the lot of these schools, as they were then remodelled and termed in 1897 Schools of Science. In 1900 the Science and Art Department was merged in the Board of Education, and the name "School of Science"

changed to "Secondary School, Division A," in 1902-3. From about 1903 the ordinary Secondary Schools were allowed to squeeze out of existence the Secondary School Division A type, and the latter gradually disappeared. The friends of technical education then began an agitation which resulted in the appearance in 1904-5 of Section 42 of the Evening Schools Regulations, *i.e.*, the Clause allowing in special cases grants to be made in respect of instruction of students in Day Technical Classes. Lastly, in 1905-6 came the revised Minute for Higher Elementary Schools. Schools under Section 42 of the Evening Schools Regulation are under the South Kensington Branch of the Board, and those under the Higher Elementary School's Minute are governed from Whitehall. We must take care not to fall between two stools, and must never again allow the secondary school of an industrial type (if I may give that name to our new trade schools), to be lost. There can be no doubt that the technical school had better be managed in close connexion with technical institutes and polytechnics, under the Regulations of the South Kensington branch of the Board of Education, rather than under the elementary schools branch from which the Higher Elementary School is managed. The former is in touch with the work of technical institutes and colleges, and is therefore better adapted for the work of technical schools than the latter.

The Higher Elementary School, as at present constituted, will do little to solve our technical education problem. We want more preparatory trade schools of type (c) both for boys and girls, managed in full connexion with, or as part of, our technical institutes. These with their equipment and staff are specially fitted for such work, as Higher Elementary Schools can never be. But we must at the same time sedulously guard against any suggestion that

the preparatory trade school is inferior in dignity to the secondary school of what used to be called Division B type; both are necessary parts of the whole system, and therefore neither is before or below the other. The founding of such schools in sufficient numbers would have most beneficial effects (1) in enlisting a greater interest among parents, who will see that work of a rational character which they can understand, and bearing on their children's future, is being taught; (2) in shortening the period of apprenticeship and learning of a trade; and (3) in bridging over the gap between the elementary school and the factory. The hostility of trade unions will not be incurred, for no attempt will be made to push boys into skilled trades without passing through a recognised course of modified preliminary apprenticeship or "learning." It will be remembered that no specialisation or attempt to teach more than the fundamental principles of a trade is permitted. Nor need we fear that too many boys are going to be put into skilled trades, only to find themselves unemployed afterwards. The object of such schools is to train boys who in any case would have gone in for industrial work, and to give them a real training, not to send them out so inefficiently prepared, that with the first change of machinery they are incapable of adapting themselves. We must open up a whole trade to the eye of a pupil, and teach him to say, "I am not a cabinet-maker if I can only make a piece, or part of a piece, of furniture"; "I am not an engineer if my skill is restricted to looking after an automatic machine"; or "I am not a carpenter if I can only make one kind of toy or athletic requirement which may fall out of fashion to-morrow."

We are now in a position to affirm certain general principles regarding the methods, limitations and dangers to be considered in the establishment and management of the true type of trade school. It is important,

1. To plan the school course so as to permit pupils to enter any given trade at the right age.
2. To arrange the last period of work in the elementary school course and the first stage of the trade school course in close co-ordination.
3. To co-ordinate the last year's work of the trade school with the system of apprenticeship or learning followed in the trade, in order to avoid waste of time in starting work.
4. To watch the state of the market, as to the number of persons employed in various trades, and the possible dangers of too early and too definite specialisation in schools; this can only be done by keeping in touch with trade requirements, by the help of employers and trade unionists.
5. To appoint the right kind of teacher.

Co-ordination indeed is the note of the whole solution, co-ordination between elementary schools, trade schools, factories, the attitudes of teachers, parents, employers, and trade unionists. First of all, to get the full value out of such schools as I have been advocating there must be effective co-ordination between the work of the elementary and the trade school, and we need here the sympathy of teachers, parents and employers in deciding the best course to be given in the elementary day schools. Care must be taken in the future not to devise any scheme on a rigid pattern, nor slavishly to copy any Continental or American methods, but to consider the genius and temperament of the nation. The intensely practical character of our race and its incapacity under systems of too great uniformity and drill must always be kept in view.

No efficient co-ordination between elementary and trade schools can be carried out without reform in the elementary

school system, and here the Board of Education Elementary Schools Branch can help, as I feel sure it will. The reforms most needed are, smaller classes, correlation of school subjects, reduction in the number of those taught as "special subjects," and, most important of all, reform in the teaching of arithmetic, which must from the very first be connected with the elements of geometry, and with manual work. These subjects should form a unity in the child's mind, not be regarded as separate or "special" subjects. In short, the science teaching and manual training must be correlated to the mathematics of the school, so that the children may see that there is an intimate connexion between them. In this way many of the difficulties experienced by children in entering technical schools and institutes will be removed, as they will be the more readily able to take up new work. As a preparation for trade schools we need sound knowledge of decimals, clear ideas of proportion in relation to simple problems in mechanics, rather than ordinary Rule of Three problems on interest, etc., and we are not at all concerned with algebra so long as the arithmetic and geometry are clearly understood as an introduction to mathematics. This practical system of teaching arithmetic in connexion with geometry and manual work cannot justly be criticised as being too special in application or as leading in the direction of trade work only. The race of boys should know how to measure and use tools, just as the race of girls should know how to use a needle. No one is afraid of teaching needlework in the elementary school, or that girls who have learnt that and other domestic economy subjects will find themselves incapable of being anything but dressmakers or upholstresses. It is the same with boys. I have no fear that the needful supply of clerks will run short. Our present system indeed, as I have said,

makes too many under-clerks, and the existence of County Council Scholarships exaggerates this evil, both as suggesting to the youthful mind that industrial work needs no preparation, and hinting also that the State sees no need to encourage it in comparison with teaching, Civil Service, or other clerical work. I do not mean that the future trade worker ought to have scholarships offered to him at 11 years of age, on the model of the Junior County Scholarships; that would be far too young, but I do wish to see the elementary school plan arranged with at least an equal attention paid to him as to his clerkly brother. The last two years of his time at the elementary school should have a direct relation to the work of the two or three years which should follow in the preparatory trade school. This means that parents should be encouraged to make a decision about their boys' future much earlier than at present, but I do not see why this should be impossible. The particular kind of trade need not be known till the boy's last year at the preparatory trade school, but that he is to go into some handicraft trade can be known with the teacher's help some time before that. At about $11\frac{1}{2}$ or 12, the children in all our elementary schools should begin to divide into groups, according to talents shown, and, within the elementary school, should work with a bias to this or that direction. The difference in the work done by the various groups need not be very great, provided the reforms in the elementary school curriculum are carried out on the lines suggested above. But this re-organisation of the studies in the elementary school will give an opportunity of seeing, what is now very difficult to find out, the kind of bent which the various children have, and whether it is worth while to follow it up.

If the work of the last two years in the elementary school is arranged so that it will fit in with the educational re-

quirements of the trade school, then children can postpone the age of entry into the latter till between 13 and 14 years of age. In other words, the first year's work which is now done in the Trade school up to the age of 14 could equally well be done by the pupils before entering, provided that the courses in the Elementary and Trade Schools had been effectively co-ordinated. In this way the course of instruction in a School of the Shoreditch wood-working type or of the Borough Polytechnic metal-working type would be shortened by one year. The course in the elementary school up to the age of 14 would then be suitable both for those who are going on to the trade school, and also for those who are for any reason obliged to go to work at 14, and must continue their education solely at evening classes. Another, though less efficient, way of producing the effect required in districts where there are no specially equipped technical institutes, would be to have the same elementary school course for all children up to 12 years of age, and preparatory technical or trade schools in the neighbourhood for children from 12 to 16 years of age. Teachers in elementary schools should be encouraged to visit the trade school in their neighbourhood and find out what their pupils will be expected to know when they enter. The experience gained would be of great value in preventing wastage and overlapping in changing from one school to another.

I have already referred to the importance of a year's preparatory training for girls going into trade schools. For the benefit of those who may be desirous of opening preparatory technical or trade schools for boys, it may be useful to consider the first year's course in my own Institute's school, which it will be remembered is planned for boys of about 13 years of age. Such a course (p. 410) could easily be taken in an elementary school, provided that it

was arranged to fit in with what is now the Trade School's second year's course, but would then become the Trade School's first year. It consists of English and Practical Mathematics for about half the time, while the remainder is devoted to Art, Geometrical and Mechanical Drawing, Elementary Physics on the Mechanics side, and Manual Work. None of these require any special equipment. The metal work is of a simple character, dealing with the working of sheet iron, zinc, brass and copper in the making of gauges, templates, hinges, geometrical solids in wire and sheet metal, and bringing in the use of simple soft soldering. The main feature of the manual work is its connexion with the mathematical and drawing-office work of the course; and it is treated as a real part of the school course.

As showing the value of close co-ordination between the elementary school and the trade or technical school, to which the boy will go on and in which the nature of his future employment will be taken into consideration throughout the course, I may mention what has been done for many years in Birmingham for silversmiths and other metal workers at the Municipal School of Art. By a wise arrangement the Art School is kept in touch with the drawing done in the elementary schools, and bright boys are passed on at about 13 to be day students at the Art School, where they spend a year or two receiving instruction under the art masters in drawing and in various branches of metal work under skilled craftsmen-teachers. The result is that these boys are eagerly sought after by the metal workers of the town, very many rising to excellent positions with good wages. This would not have been possible but for the liberality of Alderman Kenrick, who paid out of his own pocket 5s. a week wages to boys attending the school, an allowance which enabled them to be kept

from going out to work during the requisite period of Art School training. Though not certain on this point, I believe that this was the first form of industrial scholarship providing maintenance for young workers in this country.

We come now to the important question of the staff. On the system pursued in this matter the success of any trade school depends. My own Day School at the Borough Polytechnic may supply a helpful example. This School is under my general direction as one possessing some knowledge of trade requirements, and as Principal of the Institute; the Senior Master, who is a Graduate in Arts and Science of London University, is my principal assistant, responsible for the English subjects and for the discipline of the School. The School is divided into forms under qualified masters for English subjects and practical mathematics, these subjects being taken throughout the School; while the physics, chemistry, drawing and workshop instruction are under the charge of instructors who all possess special acquaintance with actual workshop conditions. For example, geometry, machine drawing and applied mechanics are taught by men who have worked in the shops and have received a sound training in those subjects, and the workshop instructors in wood and metal are expert craftsmen capable of earning their living in the factory. The School is so arranged that the boys on entering come under the control of the Senior Master. It is a most important point that the first year's work should be done under the superintendence of the most responsible master. The comparatively specialised third year is spent chiefly with the engineering and workshop staff, so that during their last year at the school the boys come into contact with men who know what workshop conditions are, and can therefore better advise them what branch of trade they are best fitted to enter.

The obvious and first qualification of the trade teacher is of course that he should have been actually a worker at some handicraft trade among the group of which he is to teach the principles. The ideal teacher will further have received a sound training in the science subjects cognate to his trade. A proper combination of theory and practice is essential. As to who is to take the science connected with a trade (*i.e.*, whether it should be taken by the technical teacher, or by a teacher who has devoted his time to science entirely), it is difficult to lay down a hard and fast rule. Other things being equal, the trade teacher would probably be the better. The objection is sometimes heard that as a rule it is not safe to entrust the science teaching to such a man, as he will not have a sufficient grasp of principles and will look at the trade work in a narrowly practical way. To my mind, the way to prevent this is not to place a science teacher above the trade teacher, as, if this is to be the custom, trade teachers will not trouble to make a thorough study of science. The better plan, I think, is to give the trade teacher a dignified position and to expect him to take his subject in a thorough and scientific manner. All over the country the practical engineer has shown himself a good teacher of engineering subjects including science; his workshop experience has made him a better teacher of them. We must, of course, guard against the danger that our practical man, caught with the glamour of science teaching, may be tempted to forget that the great object of his work is to make good *workmen*, not laboratory dilettanti. We want a new race of technical instructors, corresponding to those in the mechanical and electrical trades. Men of the latter type are needed in all branches, wood work, metal work, leather work of all kinds. Sir Philip Magnus in his last presidential address to the

Manual Training Teachers' Association spoke of the teachers of the future, and reference to that address will repay anyone interested in the question.

In this paper, I have dealt with what I believe to be one of the most important educational problems with which our community has to deal. Part-time attendance and evening class work at technical institutes has been and will continue to be a necessary means of training for those who are already engaged in the works, but adequate preparation at school must be added to our system. We need good citizens, but good citizens must be good workers. If education could but cease to be a question of party politics, if education authorities and teachers would plan it on rational lines and secure the co-operation of parents and employers, in it would be found the great solution of many of the riddles of our social system, of which unemployment is not the least. Imagine for a moment the awfully deadening effect on a man of the discovery that he has been flung into the industrial market so ill prepared that he must be tied for ever to one small branch of a trade without the ability to broaden his knowledge and to turn to fresh aspects of it! Can we not realise the necessity for giving boys a broad training at the outset, before intelligence and versatility have been deadened? No one who knows anything about present-day industrial conditions can be satisfied with the existence of the one-branch worker, nor can fail to wonder that there is not greater unrest both here and abroad than has yet shown itself. Whatever the necessities of the methods of production, we have no right to cramp the minds and lives of the producers.

C. T. MILLIS.

CHAPTER XIV.

Certain Trade Schools and Pre-apprenticeship Schools in England.

A brief review of their aims and courses of study.

THE reader of the preceding chapter may find it convenient to have for reference a summary of the aims of some of the trade schools and pre-apprenticeship schools which have recently been founded in England.

It has long been characteristic of educational thought in this country to approve those forms of school training which stimulate the application of the pupil by a constant sense of the practical utility of his or her intellectual efforts. Nor has this been a mere matter of theory. Side by side with our public elementary schools there has been built up a system of industrial schools, in which the course of instruction is based upon practical work done in and for a community, under influences which appeal to a boy's pleasure in seeing the work of his own hands, and to his instinctive response to smart and just discipline. What is best in the spirit of these schools came in great measure from the example of Pestalozzi. For a time it seemed likely that our system of elementary education in England would comprise, under one Department, the industrial and the more literary types of school. Dr. Kay (afterwards Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth) and his colleague, Mr. E. Carleton-Tufnell, established, in 1840, at Battersea, a training school with an elementary school attached to it, in which education was to have a practical bent. In 1846 the Education Department offered grants to day schools of industry by the same Minute which gave grants to certain teachers in ordinary elementary schools. But in 1860, the

industrial schools were transferred to the care of the Home Secretary. In the following year the hurtful action of Mr. Robert Lowe imposed upon the ordinary elementary schools of the country a system by which Government grants were paid according to the results of the individual examination of children in reading, writing and arithmetic. This act of the Central Authority thwarted the efforts of those elementary school teachers who might, if they had been allowed, have worked out a form of school training liberal in its influence and at the same time strong on the manual and constructive side. The tendency to bookishness in school work, which Mr. Lowe's Code caused his Department to encourage and the teachers in self-protection to adopt, might have been corrected by the influence of the industrial school, had not the latter been transferred to the remote region of another Department, having been previously marked off as suitable only for the less fortunate or more unruly children. The separation of the two types of school soon accentuated the defects of each.

In 1870, however, a Royal Commission on Scientific Instruction was appointed, and in its reports, which appeared in ten parts between 1871 and 1875, dealt with the plan of scientific teaching in all grades of education. From this time onwards (Mr. T. Twining's *Technical Training* was published in 1874) the movement for more practical education grew apace. In 1877 the Livery Companies of London formed a committee to prepare a scheme for a national system of technical education. As a result of this the City and Guilds of London Institute was incorporated in 1880, with great benefit to the interests of technological instruction throughout the country.

Gradually with the help of Mr. J. R. Diggle and others and under the influence of ideas from Naas, manual

training found a place in the ordinary elementary school. And it fortunately happened that all liberal and humanizing influences in the industrial schools met with encouragement (though at no sacrifice of practical training and discipline) on the part of their Chief Inspector, Mr. J. G. Legge, now Director of Education at Liverpool. Thus the way was opened for an interchange of influence between the two types of school, and such interchange was hastened by the educational exhibitions held in 1899 and 1900. Since that time the idea of introducing more practical work into the elementary schools has gained ground.¹ Concurrently there has been a growing disposition to establish what are really day continuation schools, designed to give practical training in preparation for apprenticeship in skilled trades. Owing to the difference in the economic position of women workers, the trade schools for girls are planned, much more definitely in most cases, to take the place of apprenticeship.

In the following pages are summarised the aims and courses of sixteen schools in England and of one school, which is of unique interest, in the City of New York.² The names of the schools are :

For Boys :—

Technical Day School, Paddington Technical Institute, London.

Day Technical Classes, Central School of Arts and Crafts, London.

Technical Day School, Shoreditch Technical Institute, London.

Technical Day School, Borough Polytechnic, London.

1. It has been furthered by the publication of the Report on "Studies Most Suitable for Elementary Schools," issued by a Committee (of which Sir Philip Magnus was Chairman) appointed at the Southport meeting of the British Association in 1893.

2. The summaries are based for the most part upon papers supplied by the Local Education Authorities or institutions concerned.

Stanley Technical Trade Schools, South Norwood, London.
 Day Preparatory Trade School, Cockburn High School,
 Leeds.

Holbeck Day Preparatory Trade School, Leeds.

Pre-apprenticeship Day School, Bootle.

Day Craft School, Brimscombe, Gloucestershire.

For Girls:—

Day Trade School, Borough Polytechnic, London.

Day Trade School of Dressmaking, Woolwich Polytechnic,
 London.

Day Trade School of Dressmaking, Paddington Technical
 Institute, London.

Day Trade School, Shoreditch Technical Institute, London.

Preparatory Trade School, Cockburn High School, Leeds.

Manhattan Trade School, City of New York.

And (in illustration of another type of practical
 training for girls)

Domestic Science School, Prince's Road, Liverpool.

Domestic Economy School, Dallington, Northamptonshire.

Special mention should also be made (though its course
 of study is not given here) of the Craft School, 137-141,
 Globe Road, Bethnal Green, London E., which has done
 pioneer work of importance in this branch of education.
 It has owed much to the guidance of Mr. H. Llewellyn
 Smith, now Secretary of the Board of Trade.

A. TRADE AND CRAFT SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

(1) *The Technical Day School for Boys at the L.C.C.
 Paddington Technical Institute.*

The object of this school, which was opened in
 September, 1906, is to provide for boys a course of scientific
 and technical training preparatory to their entering the

engineering and building trades. The course is planned to meet the needs of boys, coming for the most part from Higher Elementary and Secondary Schools, who hope to attain to positions of responsibility as foremen and managers, and who need a preliminary, scientific and technical training, before entering works or offices. It is not intended that the training received at the school shall be a substitute for apprenticeship or workshop experience. The pupils must be not less than 14 years of age at entry, and must bring a recommendation from the Headmaster of the last school attended. Boys from elementary schools are admitted if, on examination, they appear to possess the necessary education and intelligence.

The full course lasts two years. The boys receive instruction in the use of tools and in construction work, with special reference to the industry which they expect to enter, and are made familiar with ordinary workshop practice, the latter being closely co-ordinated with the work of the drawing office. The curriculum includes Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Applied Mechanics, English Composition, Commercial Correspondence and business methods.

The school keeps the ordinary three terms, and is open from 9-30 a.m. to 12-30 p.m., and from 2 to 5 p.m. on five days a week. The fee is 15s. a term or £2. 5s. a year.

The County Council offers a certain number of scholarships tenable at the school by boys between 14 and 16 years of age. These give free tuition and a maintenance grant of £10 the first year and £15 the second year.

(2) *Day Technical Classes at the L.C.C. Central School of Arts and Crafts, Regent Street, London.*

These classes were established in September, 1906, in order to provide a suitable preliminary training for boys intending to enter the silver smithing or kindred trades.

The number of pupils is limited to 20. The fee is £1. 10s. a year, and the County Council offers ten free studentships.

(3) *The Technical Day School for Boys at the L.C.C. Shoreditch Technical Institute.*

This school was opened in January, 1902. Its object is "to enable boys who intend to enter some branch of the furniture or other wood-working trades, as cabinet makers, carpenters, joiners, shop-fitters, pattern-makers, turners, wood-carvers or draughtsmen, to continue their general education, and at the same time to acquire such a knowledge of the artistic principles of design and the scientific principles of construction, of the properties of materials, and of the use of tools, as will enable them at the end of a two or three years' course to enter a workshop with a full appreciation of the points to which they are expected to direct their attention, and with an intelligence so trained as to make them immediately of substantial use to an employer."

The school is open to boys who are capable of doing the work of Standard VII. of the Elementary School, and who are fourteen years of age. Younger boys are admitted by scholarship.

The course lasts for two or three years. During the first year the subjects of instruction are:—English Subjects (Composition, History, Geography); Arithmetic and Mensuration (General); Geometry and Geometrical Drawing; Freehand and Model Drawing; Modelling in Clay; Elementary Experimental Science (class-work and laboratory work); Workshop and Technical Drawing; Technology of woods, metals and tools (Note-book lessons); Bench-work (use of wood-working tools and use of metal-working tools).

The Second and Third Year Courses are on similar lines, but during the third year a higher degree of specialisation is permitted.

The fee is £1. 10s. a year. The Council reserves to itself the right to remit the fee wholly or in part in the case of any boy whose parents are in receipt of not more than £2 a week. The Council also offers annually twenty-five scholarships tenable at the school. These are open to boys who are resident in the County of London, who are not less than 13 years of age, and are working in the VIth or a higher standard. The Council must be furnished with a statement of the past career and future intentions of the candidate, and the application must be supported by recommendations from the Headmaster and the Manual Training Instructor under whom the boy has been working.

The scholarships are awarded on the results of a qualifying examination in English and Arithmetic, combined with a competitive examination in (a) Freehand and Model Drawing or Clay-modelling; (b) Elementary Workshop and Geometrical Drawing; (c) Manual Training in Woodwork. These scholarships are tenable for two years with a possible extension for a third year, but no scholarship can be retained after the end of the school year in which the scholar reaches the age of sixteen. They provide free tuition at the school, travelling and maintenance allowances, graduated according to the age of the scholars. Those under 14 receive £10 a year for travelling and other expenses; those between 14 and 15, receive a maintenance allowance of £15; and those between 15 and 16, a maintenance allowance of £20. No candidate is eligible for a scholarship whose parents are in receipt of more than £120 a year.

There is an Advisory Sub-Committee for the whole Institute (including the Technical Day School for Boys), consisting partly of members of the London County Council, partly of employers and others interested in the work.

(4) *The Technical Day School for Boys at the Borough Polytechnic Institute.*

The Technical Day School for Boys at the Borough Polytechnic was opened in 1897, and re-organised in 1906 to afford opportunities for preparatory trade training which would give London boys better chances than they had hitherto had of becoming skilled workers. At present the work of the school is planned with a view principally to the needs of boys desiring to enter the engineering and various metal-working trades, but it is intended to prepare for other trades (*e.g.*, chemical, book-binding, tailoring, bakery and confectionery trades) as opportunity offers. Boys are eligible for admission who are over 12 years of age and have passed the Vth Standard of an elementary school, or have received an equivalent education, and can show that they possess sufficient ability to profit by the instruction. They must also have made up their minds that they intend to enter some handicraft trade. A certificate of good conduct is required from the school last attended.

The course ordinarily lasts for three years, but may be extended to four years. The subjects of instruction include General English Subjects (including special lectures and visits to museums and works); Practical Mathematics (including mensuration and geometry); Freehand and Model Drawing (including the making of dimensioned sketches from actual objects in use, such as pieces of apparatus, parts of machines, etc.); Mechanical and Engineering Drawing; Mechanics; Physics and Chemistry; Wood and Metal Work; One Modern Foreign Language (French or German); Physical Exercises.

During the first year the course of instruction is common to all boys. In the second year, slight modifications are allowed when it is known what the future requirements of

individual boys are likely to be, but no real specialisation is permitted until the third year, when the pupils are allowed to devote considerable time to workshop and other instruction suitable to the particular trade or occupation they wish to follow. For boys of special aptitude who wish to take a fourth year's course, further specialisation can be arranged. A reasonable amount of home work is required of all the pupils. The physical development of the boys is well cared for, and organised games are played in the field belonging to the Institute.

The fee is £1 a term or £3 a year. Twenty scholarships, giving free tuition and a maintenance allowance (£6 for the first two years, £15 for the third) are offered by the County Council to boys who will be 13 years of age on entering the school. In addition, a limited number of entrance exhibitions giving free tuition, and renewable year by year, are awarded by the Governors. Certain local exhibitions and scholarships are also tenable at the school.

An Advisory Council of employers has been formed in connexion with the school, so as to link the education given with the industries of the neighbourhood, and to help the boys to find suitable positions on leaving.

(5) *The Stanley Technical Trade Schools.*

The Stanley Trade School, founded by Mr. W. F. Stanley, of the firm of optical and scientific instrument makers, was opened in March, 1907. The aim of the school is to teach the rudiments of mechanics, science and applied art to boys having a taste for these subjects, in order to prepare them for entering into apprenticeships in mechanical trades with considerable knowledge of the work they may have to do. The school, which has been built and equipped at Mr. Stanley's expense, is situated in South Norwood. It has been placed by Mr. Stanley under

a Board of Governors, consisting of the Mayor of the Borough and others interested in educational work.

Boys between 12 and 13 years of age are eligible for admission, and it is proposed to take fifty such boys into the school every four months until the number reaches four hundred. Should the number of candidates exceed the number of vacancies, choice will be made of those boys who seem most likely to profit by the special training—the sons of mechanics, for instance, and boys who have already shown special mechanical or artistic ability. Good work in the public elementary schools from which the candidates come, will also be taken into account. The boys must be of good character and are expected to be punctual and regular in attendance. The right is reserved of terminating the attendance of any boy who, either through want of intelligence and special aptitude, or through lack of interest and application to his work, proves himself unfit to profit by the training given at the school.

The subjects of instruction will depend partly upon the intelligence and needs of the individual boys, who will so far as possible be pushed forward in that branch of mechanics in which they are capable of doing the best work. They will begin with different forms of wood-work—flatwork, turning and rough carving,—and will go on to work in metals—fitting, turning, casting, soldering, and electro-deposition. All pupils will take drawing, including freehand and mechanical drawing, and more advanced students will have opportunities of learning printing, painting, modelling, designing, chasing, engraving, and carving in wood and stone. Half the time each day will be devoted to subjects of general education, and half to technical and artistic training. In his address at the opening of the school, Mr. Stanley suggested that the expenses of the practical instruction in this and similar

schools might be partly met by the manufacture for sale of toys, boxes of bricks, etc., such as are now imported from Germany, and also of models of machinery, cranes, trucks, etc. The material used for this purpose in the Stanley Schools consists of small pieces of wood which would otherwise be burnt or wasted at Mr. Stanley's works. It is hoped that in the future the students will be able to construct pieces of scientific apparatus which are now imported from abroad for teaching purposes.

The practical technical instruction is to be given by intelligent mechanics—joiners, engineers and others,—but the general work of the school will be in the hands of certificated teachers.

The fee has been fixed at 1s. a week for the first year, or until such time as the pupil's work becomes of commercial value. In the second year the instruction will be free and in the third, the pupils are to receive a value consideration for their work. It is not proposed as a rule to keep boys at the school after they are fifteen, but an exception will be made in the case of those who may wish to become teachers.

(6) *The Day Preparatory Trade School for Boys at the Cockburn High School, Leeds.*

The object of this school, which was opened in 1906, is to provide, for boys who propose to enter the engineering trade, a brief period of thoroughly practical training and instruction such as may help to counteract the effects of the disappearance of the old system of apprenticeship. It is open to boys of fourteen years of age, or of thirteen, if they have obtained, or are entitled to obtain, a labour certificate. The normal length of the course is one year, and a formal undertaking is required on behalf of each pupil that he will not be withdrawn, except with the con-

sent of the Education Committee, before the completion of the one year's course. No pupil is retained in the school after it has been definitely ascertained that he is unlikely to profit by the course so as to develop ultimately into a skilled worker. Fifteen hours a week are devoted to workshop practice, drawing office work and practical mechanics, and five hours to workshop calculations and practical mathematics. Instruction is given by practical men who have themselves been through the engineering shops. The fee is 7s. a term. All books, stationery and apparatus required for use in the school are supplied free of charge, but parents are strongly recommended to buy such articles as reading-books and drawing apparatus for independent home use.

Every endeavour is made to keep in touch with the requirements of the engineering shops of the city, so that there may be no difficulty in placing the boys when they leave the school. Several employers in the neighbourhood have signified their approval of the scheme, and their intention to accept boys who have been through the course of training, and are recommended by the school authorities as efficient.

(7) *The Holbeck Day Preparatory Trade School, Leeds.*

A two years' course of training for the engineering trades is given at the Holbeck Day Preparatory Trade School in Leeds, which was opened in February, 1906. The curriculum is planned with the object of improving a boy's general education, developing his common sense and reasoning power, and of enabling him to acquire the manual dexterity necessary to ensure that he shall be put at once to useful work when he enters the engineering shops. The course of instruction includes, for the first year: --

Mathematics (practical)...	5 hours per week.
Mechanics	3 " " "
Technical Drawing...	4½ " " "
Metal Work	6 " " "
Wood Work	2 " " "
English	6 " " "
Drill	1 " " "
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Total	27½ " " "

Visits to works, rambles, etc., are also arranged.

The second year's course is on similar, but more advanced lines, and students of exceptional promise are encouraged to specialise in their work.

The school is open to any boy who has attended an elementary school regularly and is thirteen years of age. Parents are required to give an undertaking that they will not withdraw a pupil within one year without the consent of the Education Committee, and regular and punctual attendance are insisted upon.

The fee is 7s. a term or £1. 1s. a year. All books, instruments and apparatus are provided free of charge.

(8) *The Pre-Apprenticeship Day School at the Bootle Technical School.*

The principal aim of the Pre-Apprenticeship School at Bootle is to provide a special form of training for the sons of artisans, tradesmen and others who intend to enter industrial occupations. While due regard is paid to the general education of the pupils, special attention is devoted to giving a sound training in the elements of science applied to the industries of the district, *e.g.*, mechanical engineering and the building trades. The full course, which extends over two years, is intended to lead to apprenticeship at about 16 years of age. Class-room in-

struction is given in drawing; practical mathematics and workshop arithmetic; elementary chemistry, physics and mechanics, with experimental work; geometrical and mechanical drawing, with practice in making dimensional hand-sketches; and English, with a special view to good and clear expression. In addition, ten hours a week are spent in the school workshop acquiring skill in handicraft work, chiefly in metals. To be eligible for admission boys must be not less than thirteen years of age and must have passed the VIIIth standard in a public elementary school. The fee is 1s. a week.

(9) *The Day Craft School at the Brimscombe Polytechnic, near Stroud.*

An interesting account of this school, which was opened in September, 1906, is given by Mr. J. C. Medd, in an article published in *School* for April, 1907. Arrangements were made, so long ago as 1901, for utilising the workshops at the Brimscombe Polytechnic for the purpose of giving manual instruction in the daytime to the elder pupils from the neighbouring elementary schools, and the success of these classes encouraged the authorities to try the further experiment of a day craft school for boys. The course of studies is arranged principally with a view to preparing the boys to enter one or other of the various wood-working industries of the neighbourhood—the making of umbrella and walking-stick handles, carpentry, joinery, cabinet-making, wood-carving, inlaying and marquetry, wood-staining and imitation marquetry. All the practical work is associated with drawing. Half the time of the pupils is devoted to some form of manual instruction and half to more general subjects. The whole curriculum is carefully arranged so as to meet the practical needs of the pupils, and includes (in addition to the

manual work in wood or metals) commercial geography, simple accounts, mensuration, the nature and properties of material, elementary experimental science, essay writing and physical culture.

Boys of 12 years of age are eligible for admission, and the course extends over two years. The school is recognized by the Board of Education as a public elementary school.

The experiment is entirely due to local initiative. The manufacturers of the district have realized the value of such a school, and have co-operated with managers, teachers and parents to make it a real preparation for the after life of the pupils. The results, even in the short time the school has been open, have been so satisfactory that the County Education Committee have decided to establish another school of the same kind at Stroud.

B. TRADE SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

(1) *The Day Trade School for Girls at the Borough Polytechnic Institute.*

The first of the Day Trade Schools for Girls to be established in London is the school for teaching Waistcoat-making, Dressmaking and Upholstery at the Borough Polytechnic. The aim of the school is to give the pupils a thorough preliminary training in a skilled trade, and at the same time to continue their general education so as to develop their intelligence and to enable them, after two or three years of workroom experience, to become the skilled intelligent workers for whom there is always demand. The course of instruction includes one of the three trade subjects—Waistcoat-making, Dressmaking or Upholstery—according to the choice of the pupil, and English, practical arithmetic, geometrical drawing, design with reference to the trade work of each section and physical exercises. About twenty-two hours each week are

given to the trade subject. For each of the three trades there is an advisory committee of trade experts, which examines the work, advises the governors and helps in placing out the pupils. The length of the course is two years, and pupils are expected to be willing to stay that length of time at the school. They may, however, be permitted to leave sooner if, in the opinion of the Advisory Committee, they are ready for the workroom. Admission is either by industrial scholarships awarded by the London County Council or by payment of a fee of 9d. a week or 10s. a term. Candidates for admission without scholarships must be at least 14 years of age, and must have passed Standard VII of the elementary day school. They must also bring a recommendation from the headmistress of the school last attended, and must give evidence of ability to sew well. The scholarships provide free instruction, and a grant for maintenance of £8 for the first year and £12 for the second year. Candidates must be between 14 and 16 years of age, and if coming from a public elementary school must be working in the VIth or a higher standard.

(2) *The Day Trade School of Dressmaking at the Woolwich Polytechnic.*

The Trade School of Dressmaking at the Woolwich Polytechnic was opened on April 23rd, 1907. The course of instruction includes:—

Trade Work (dressmaking)	20 hours per week.
English	2 " " "
Arithmetic	1½ " " "
Geometrical Drawing	1½ " " "
Design and Art Needlework	3 " " "
Physical Exercises	1½ " " "
Total	29½ " " "

Throughout the trade work instruction is given in the suitability of materials of various kinds for carrying out the different processes of dressmaking; in calculation of quantities and cost; in adaptation of styles to various figures; and in the blending of colours. The aim throughout the whole course is to train the eye and cultivate the taste of the pupil as well as to make her an efficient hand worker. All the trade instruction is given by teachers who have had practical experience of trade work. The English teaching is planned with a view to enabling the girls to express themselves intelligently in conversation, and in letter writing. But at the same time as much as possible is done to give the girls an interest in books and to cultivate a taste for reading.

Admission to the school is by means of scholarships given by the London County Council or by the payment of a small fee. A certain number of free places are granted by the governors. The scholarships which give free tuition, and carrying with them maintenance grants of £8 for the first year and £12 for the second year, are awarded on the results of a qualifying examination in English, arithmetic and composition, combined with a competitive examination in drawing and needlework. Candidates must be resident in the County of London, must be between 14 and 16 years of age, and must be working in the Vth or a higher standard of an elementary school.

A Consultative Committee of trade experts supervises the work of the school. They meet at the Polytechnic and look through all the work done by the girls, criticise it and where necessary make suggestions for its improvement.

As time goes on, it is hoped that it may be possible to encourage social activities in connexion with the school.

(3) *The Day Trade School of Dressmaking of the L.C.C.
Paddington Technical Institute.*

The object of the Day Trade School of Dressmaking at the Paddington Technical Institute is to afford to girls leaving the elementary schools an industrial training in dressmaking which shall take the place of apprenticeship. About five half days each week are devoted to trade instruction, the rest of the time is given to the improvement of the general education of the pupil, but with special reference to the requirements of the trade. The subjects of instruction in addition to the trade subject of dressmaking are :—

English literature and composition.

Vocal expression.

Arithmetic and bookkeeping.

Drawing.

Geometry.

French.

Domestic economy.

Physical exercises.

The length of the course is, as a rule, two years, with a probationary period of three months.

The school is intended primarily for girls leaving the public elementary schools between 14 and 16 years of age who desire to become dressmakers, but other girls are admitted without reference to age on the payment of a fee of 10s. a term or £1. 10s. a year.

Scholarships giving free tuition and carrying a maintenance grant are awarded by the County Council on the same conditions as those described in connexion with the Woolwich School. No charge is made to pupils for material, but the finished work cannot be taken away without payment of the cost of materials.

A Consultative Committee of trade employers and social workers, who are experts, is attached to the school, with the duty of advising the Council on all matters affecting its welfare.

(4) *The Day Trade School for Girls at the L.C.C. Shoreditch Technical Institute.*

The Girls' Trade School at the Shoreditch Technical Institute was opened on April 30th, 1906, with the object of affording an industrial training in skilled trades to girls on leaving the elementary school. It is intended that this training shall take the place of apprenticeship. The trade subjects taken are the designing and making of ready-made clothing and upholstery. About half the school time is given to practice in one or other of these trades according to the choice of the pupil and the other half to general subjects in the teaching of which the requirements of the particular trade are always kept in view. The general side of the curriculum includes English composition, arithmetic, freehand and geometrical drawing, design, some domestic subjects and physical exercises. The course extends over two years. Admission is by payment or by scholarship as at the Paddington School. The work is under the supervision of a Consultative Committee of experts.

(5) *Preparatory Trade School for Girls at the Cockburn High School, Leeds.*

The Preparatory Trade School for Girls in Leeds was opened in February, 1906. The aim of the school is to provide for girls a brief period of thoroughly practical training such as will help to counteract the effects of the disappearance of the old system of apprenticeship. Every effort is made to enlist the sympathy of employers so as to

establish a connexion between the school and the work-room. About fifteen hours a week are given to practical work, drafting, drawing and design, and hygiene; the remainder to housewifery, to the more mechanical details of business methods and to general education. The normal length of course is one year, and a formal declaration is required on behalf of each pupil accepted that she will not be withdrawn, except with the permission of the Education Committee, before the completion of the one year's course. No pupil is retained in the school after it has been definitely ascertained that she is unlikely to profit by the training given, so as to develop into a skilled worker. The school is open to girls of 14 years of age and to those of not less than 13 years of age, who have obtained, or are entitled to obtain, a labour certificate. A fee of 7s. a term is charged to all pupils. This includes books, stationery and apparatus for use in school, but parents are strongly recommended to buy for home use such articles as drawing apparatus and reading books.

This school seems to be more general in its scope than the London Trade Schools. The nature of the practical work is not specified, and the intention seems to be to adapt the course either to the needs of girls who intend afterwards to become cooks, pastry-cooks or confectioners, or to the needs of those who will afterwards enter one of the industries based upon needlework. The close connexion of the Trade School with the School of Housecraft at the Cockburn High School, makes it possible to meet these two needs in the same school.

(6) *The Manhattan Trade School for Girls, City of New York.*

The Manhattan Day Trade School was opened in 1903, with four very definite aims. It purposed to offer to a

girl who must work for her living, and whose intention it was to enter either the dressmaking, millinery, or fancy box-making trades :

(1) A training that would make her highly skilled in a specific trade as quickly as her individual ability would allow, and so help her to earn a better wage.

(2) A training that would enable her to enter more than one group of allied trades, because she understood the principles underlying the trades included in this group.

(3) A training that would fit her mentally and physically to cope with the conditions of shop life and shop work in the trades open to women.

(4) A training that would enable her to understand her relation to her employer, to her fellow worker and to her work.

It is claimed for the school that it has all the advantages of the apprentice system with none of its narrowness and wastefulness. As a trade learner a girl frequently becomes an employer's handy assistant rather than a trade apprentice, but at the school the whole of a girl's time is spent in gaining trade efficiency. All the more general and artistic training that the school offers is properly co-ordinated with the trade work. At the same time it is not forgotten that a girl's training should fit her for the home as well as for industry. Though no training is given in house-keeping, the school, by encouraging habits of accuracy, of regularity and of observation, is indirectly a valuable training for home-keeping. It endeavours to be a preparation for life as well as for industry.

The school, which is independent of the public school system of the city, is under a Board of Administrators, and has attached to it an influential Advisory Board. Its Director, Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman, is also Director of the Domestic Art Department of Teachers' College,

Columbia University. In the new building which has lately been secured for the school, it is calculated that from 500 to 800 day pupils can be accommodated. During the year 1906, the number of girls admitted to the day classes was 385, and to the evening classes 60. In the old building the expense per head has been as high as \$168 (£33. 12s.), but it is hoped that in future the cost per head may be reduced as low as \$80 (£16).

The trade work school is organised in four departments, viz. :—

(1) The Power Operating Department, in which all kinds of machine work (buttonholing, hemstitching, embroidery, straw-sewing, etc.) are done.

(2) The Hand-sewing Department, in which all kinds of hand-sewing from elementary work to advanced dress-making are taught.

(3) The Pasting Department, in which instruction is given in silk and cretonne novelty work, and in jewellery and silver ware case making.

(4) The Millinery Department, for instruction in frame-making, advanced hat making, and in the expert uses of malines, chiffons, and other materials in hats and neck-ware.

There is also a Business Shop, where trade orders are received. The taking of order work is felt to be an advantage to the school in that it helps to give seriousness to the work of the classes, but the difficulties connected with it are serious. Such orders must be finished to time, while the hours of trade work in the school are limited, and the constant repetition of the same process ceases after a time to be of value to the student. To obviate these difficulties a business shop with its own paid workers doing the work which the students cannot or should not do, has been found necessary.

In the Store, which is a new departure made possible by the acquisition of the larger building, the various kinds of departmental work are displayed so as to facilitate the taking of order work. In connexion with this branch of the school it is hoped in future to develop another kind of business training. Girls occasionally come to the school who have no aptitude for work in any of the special trades, but who show ability in caring for the stock and in the keeping of accounts. By giving these girls training in business methods in connexion with the Store, they may be helped to become valuable clerks and saleswomen.

In addition to the four definitely trade departments of the school there are (1) an Academic-Trade Department, in which the general education of the students is carried forward and correlated with and brought to bear upon their trade work, and (2) an Art Department where the problem of giving practical art training which may be directly helpful in the many trades of the school is being worked out. There is a Reading Room for the use of the girls at the mid-day break and a gymnasium. In connexion with the physical training, the health of the girls is carefully watched, and a weekly period is set apart for discussions of practical hygienic subjects such as knowledge of the body and its activities, the value of fresh air, proper food, regular bathing, sanitary conditions and temperate living. The Director has the assistance of a Social Secretary, whose duty it is, amongst other things, to come into contact with and know every student personally, so that wise financial assistance may be given when needed and that the girls may be placed in positions suitable to their abilities. In this work she has the assistance of the Students' Aid Committee, whose business it is to investigate the conditions of the families of those students who apply for aid, and to decide upon the amount of assistance to be given in each case.

The positions which the students are taking, and the salaries which they can command, show that the work of the school is appreciated by the employers. The latter show their confidence by allowing the school to indicate the money value of the students, and to say under what conditions they should work. During the year 1906 the following positions have been filled by students from the school: Dressmaking, 80; Hand Sewing, 6; Operating, 38; Straw Sewing, 7; Millinery, 18; Pasting and Novelty Work, 38; Miscellaneous, 2. Total 189.

C. DOMESTIC SCIENCE SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

(1) *The Domestic Science School, Prince's Road, Liverpool.*

This school, which is an offshoot of the work of the Liverpool Training School of Cookery and Technical College of Domestic Science, was opened in 1896. Its aim is to enable girls from the elementary schools to obtain a course of training in all the duties of home life before entering on their different occupations. In a course extending over twenty weeks, the girls are instructed in cookery, laundry work, household sewing, home dressmaking, domestic millinery, hygiene and housewifery. The school is open daily, except Saturday, from 9-30 to 4. There is accommodation for 70 pupils, and all the places are filled. The girls are divided for practical work into five classes, no class having more than fifteen pupils. Cookery, sewing, housewifery, dressmaking and laundry are taken in rotation, a week at a time, the cycle being repeated four times in each session. What specially distinguishes this from most day schools of domestic science is that the teaching is given in a house which is actually lived in and used. The Principal and four teachers are resident, and the girls do the regular work of the house, including the cooking of a large dinner every day for themselves and the teachers.

Experience in purchasing and managing for small households is given by a plan of small dinners for two or four persons. Each girl in turn plans a bill of fare at a given cost, buys the food with the sum allowed, and then cooks and serves the dinner. In dressmaking, each girl is measured for her own pattern, draws it, cuts it out and makes the garment herself. The practical work is done in the morning, and in the afternoon the girls are taught the principles of their work in demonstration lessons.

The fee for instruction charged to girls from the elementary schools is 1s. a week. Others pay 2s. 6d. a week. Dinner is charged for at 3d. a head. The City Council gives a grant to the school, and in return nominates a certain number of scholars each year from the elementary schools.

The girls are greatly interested in the work of the school and never stay away except in case of illness. Sometimes they return for a second course of instruction. The best age for entry is between 14 and 15, and none are taken above 18.

The chief difficulty is to persuade parents to forego the wages which at that age their daughters might be earning. But the work of the school is much appreciated as is shown by the attendance of one daughter after another of the same family.

(2) *The Domestic Economy School at Dallington, Northamptonshire.*

The Northamptonshire County Council's School of Domestic Economy at Dallington was founded in 1896, with the object of "giving to girls, most of whom will become wives and managers of households, a thorough training in all branches of a housewife's or domestic ser-

vant's duties, with special regard to economy of materials and time." It is a residential school, and the premises (which in all cover some two acres) comprise a house, which was originally built as a private residence but has been extended and adapted for the work of the school, a good-sized lawn, a flower garden, a small kitchen garden and a paddock. The leading idea in its organisation is that the pupils shall themselves do all the work necessary for the upkeep of the establishment. No servants are kept, and the girls are thus bound to go fully into all the domestic work of a large household. The school is never closed for holidays. The number of girls who can be accommodated is thirty. The pupils are in all cases girls who have been through the elementary schools. They are selected at the age of about 14, and during their residence at the school are boarded and taught free of all expense. In the case of each applicant for admission the Committee require to be informed of her age and of the occupation of her parent or guardian, and to be furnished with particulars of her school attendances during the previous three years. The Head Teacher of the school which she has last attended is requested to report upon the candidate's conduct, diligence, progress and standard of attainment. The medical officer inspects all girls on their entry.

Originally the course was planned to last six months, but it was soon found that this period was too brief, and since January, 1899, the course has been extended to eight months. As fifteen girls are admitted every four months, and all stay for eight months, it follows that there will be in the school at any one time fifteen "old" and fifteen "new" girls. As far as possible they work in pairs, an old and a new girl together. The average course is about thirty-four weeks, and is generally divided as follows between the different branches of domestic work.

Kitchen and scullery	9 weeks.
Laundry	9 „
Housework (upstairs)	9 „
Housework (downstairs)	7 „

Regular instruction is given in cooking, washing and ironing, house-cleaning, bed-making, lighting and cleaning lamps, sewing, mending and dressmaking, and the use of household remedies for cuts, bruises, burns and other small ailments. Each girl makes for herself while at the school one dress, in addition to other garments. She also does her own mending.

Up to September, 1905, 407 girls had passed through the school. Of these fifteen left, either on account of illness or of changed home circumstances, without completing the course. Of about one-third of the remainder (134) nothing is known, and the probability is that most of them remained at home. Of those concerning whom anything is known, a few (25) have become teachers in elementary schools; and a few (14) have taken up dress-making, but the large majority (203) have gone into domestic service.

M. E. SADLER.

M. S. BEARD.

CHAPTER XV.

**Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committees,
with an Account of the Work of the Cambridge Boys'
Employment Registry.**

It is only within the last few years that attention has been directed to the sudden step which children of the working classes take when they leave the elementary school to enter work. They pass at once from the discipline and care of the school to the freedom of the wage earner, and while still mere children in disposition and knowledge of the world, are allowed to act as adults, finding their own work and making their own way, without the advice of any friend or feeling of responsibility to any one. It is only in exceptional cases that we now find that happy state of affairs depicted by the older school of economists, of the father seeking for work for his son in his own trade, and of the daughter following in her mother's footsteps. The growth of large towns with a multiplicity of occupations and varieties of processes, the numerous openings for juvenile labour, and the interference of machinery with adult labour in some trades, have all united to confuse the minds of parents, and make them feel how difficult it is to select suitable occupations for their children. Any one parent may know a great deal about one or two occupations, but nothing about the many others which are possible, and it is probably this ignorance, rather than a deliberate selfishness, which makes parents leave the choice of work for their children to chance. Most school teachers deplore the way in which the children drift off to any kind of work on leaving school, but few have the knowledge or time to spend on placing them and following up their career, and so it is that both boys and girls have been

allowed to enter whatever work they have first heard of, often with unfortunate results. For the occupations which are easiest to find by both boys and girls, and which are best paid at the start, are generally those which have no prospects for the future, "blind-alley" occupations which lead to nothing. No one definite occupation can be classed as such, but there are many openings in work like that of errand, van or messenger boy, or for girls in factories, which are of this kind. At the age of 18 or 19, when permanent work is most important, the lad is dismissed in order that a younger one may take his place, and he has learnt nothing which can assist him in finding work elsewhere; his intelligence and abilities have not been awakened and developed, but have usually been dulled by work which requires no power of application and little intelligence, and he is thenceforth only able to do unskilled work. With girls it is often the same. Openings for learning skilled trades are more difficult to find, and generally demand some sacrifice of wages at first, a sacrifice which the parents do not always care to make, and sometimes when a good start is made, some little difficulty or dissension will make the child throw up his work and turn to something else because there has been no one to advise him or speak for him at the critical moment. Thus it is that many a one who has shown great promise at school becomes in after life an unskilled and often a casual worker.

It was the appreciation of these facts which led to the formation of Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committees. The movement, which is entirely voluntary, aims at encouraging the entry of children into good trades and occupations with prospects, by offering advice to parents and by finding definite and suitable openings for the children. Forty years ago, the pioneer society, the

Industrial Committee of the Jewish Board of Guardians, first began to arrange for the apprenticeship of Jewish children to trades, and started a loan fund in order that the premiums might be lent to the parents and repaid out of the wages of the apprentice. In 1886 the East London Apprenticing Fund was started to work among the Christian children of East London in the same way, and these two bodies have continued their work without alteration, and have up to June, 1907, apprenticed 4,730 and 806 children respectively.

During the last few years local committees¹ have been formed in various parts of London, which work on slightly different lines, since they receive applications from the children leaving the elementary schools of the district, and place them at work as apprentices or as learners without indentures (in which case the boy or girl has to be generally useful, but in a well organised firm has opportunities of learning the trade), or occasionally as pupils at the recently started L.C.C. Day Trade Schools. The methods of work followed by the different local committees are on very much the same lines. No child is placed without the application of one or both the parents; particulars of the family circumstances are asked for, and of the child's health, age and school career. The schoolmaster or mistress is always consulted as to his character and abilities, and then, after a consideration of all these points and further consultation with the parents, a suitable occupation is selected, and an opening sought for, if one is not known at the moment. The committee exercises a watch over the case, conducting all the negotiations with the employer, and supervising the arrangements for the apprenticeship when the child is placed with indentures.

1. See Appendix, page 462.

When possible, the Committee uses its own form of indentures, which contains a special clause allowing a representative to act as fourth party with power to cancel the agreement, should it be necessary either through the failure of the employer to fulfil his contract to teach the trade, or through the bad behaviour of the apprentice. As few parents have sums of money in hand with which to pay the premiums of apprenticeship, many local committees have a certain sum which may be used as a loan for this purpose, to be repaid weekly out of the apprentice's wages, after the manner followed by the Industrial Committee of the Jewish Board of Guardians. Occasionally, where special circumstances make a gift desirable, the case may be referred to some endowed apprenticeship charity for the help required. Children are placed as learners without indentures when the home circumstances, conditions of the trade or custom of the employer make it desirable.

The work of the Committee does not cease with the placing of the boy or girl. A watch is kept over his progress throughout the time of apprenticeship or period of learning the trade. This is often done through a "visitor" or "guardian," who is asked to take a generally friendly interest in the progress of his charge, and to report on it to the Committee. Any steps are taken which can help to make the boy or girl a better worker. Attendance at suitable evening or technical classes is urged, the joining of a thrift club or juvenile friendly society suggested, and, perhaps of an evening recreation club, while a short holiday in the country may be arranged for. Periodical reports are received from the employer as to progress, and some member or representative of the committee is always ready to act as guardian not only of the children's interests, but also of the employer's, by giving advice or

reproof to unsatisfactory apprentices or learners. Many a time in my own experience, the presence of an outside individual who is sympathetic to both parties, has smoothed over little difficulties which might otherwise have caused an abrupt cessation of the boy's or girl's career in a skilled trade. By this work and watching the Committee not only aims at securing a good industrial training for the children, but, if a careful choice of applicants is made, supplies the employer with suitable learners who should afterwards become skilled and really efficient workers.

For the question must be looked at not only from the point of view of the children, but also from that of employers and of the needs of industry. In the first place a great amount of industrial information must be collected about the conditions obtaining in the different trades of the locality, the methods of training in vogue, and the prospects for the future, so far as they can be determined. The Committee undertakes to recommend the entry of each boy or girl into some particular occupation, and it must therefore have the information so that it can really ascertain what is best. Secondly, if the movement is to succeed it must receive the co-operation of employers, since entry to the trade is made through the workshop. This co-operation might perhaps be secured by the payment in every case of premiums of apprenticeship, but it is hardly necessary to refute that as an unsound policy. Rather, they must be induced to co-operate by the proved usefulness of the work of the Committees. For it is clear that by assisting in the careful selection of the children, and by keeping a watch over them during their apprenticeship, the Committees should be able to supply the employers with just the intelligent, adaptable, and well-trained workers that they need. Occasional mis-

takes have been made in the past with unfortunate results, but from experience there is every evidence that the committees' work is looked on very favourably by employers. The present conditions of industry make it impossible for them to know the home conditions of their workers, and all considerate firms are therefore glad to know that there is an outside and responsible body to whom these conditions are known, and who will act as intermediary or connecting link whenever necessary.

But possibly my readers may be most interested in the question from the children's point of view. On this side the effects may be far reaching. To begin with, the rule that no child is placed without the application of at least one of the parents does much to make them realise their responsibility to their children, a sense of which is apt to die away directly the age for leaving school is reached. When the child is placed with indentures, the contract to serve exercises a wholesome influence over him. He is kept to a certain extent in "*statu pupillari*" and under discipline. The interval between childhood and manhood is bridged over. When not apprenticed, the fact that he has been placed by an outside society, and that he will be held responsible to them for misbehaviour, or for leaving his place without due cause, must have a salutary effect.

Then again, many boys and girls will not trouble to attend evening classes of any sort, and many employers, though believing theoretically in technical education, will not take steps to press attendance on their younger workers. These Committees consult the employers as to the best classes, and in their own indentures they insert a clause allowing for reasonable time off from work for attendance without loss of wage. They urge attendance and enquire as to progress. In this way they secure a

combination of theoretical instruction, and of that practical work, which when it is done under good conditions and requires intelligence is truly educative. By the interest which the Committees take in the progress made in workshop and in class, they spur the young worker on to put forth his best and may do much by this alone, to aid in training efficient workers for the future.

In order to secure co-operation among the local committees and to promote unity of work, a central association, the Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Association,¹ has been formed. This body aids the formation of new committees and centralises information. During 1906, the London Committees affiliated to it placed 100 boys and 159 girls in skilled work.²

The general movement is at present young, and from these figures it is seen that, so far, only the fringe of the question has been touched. The potentiality of the movement seems to me great, but owing to the difficulty of the work, it can grow but gradually. I hope that we may see great developments in the future, and that eventually there may be a committee in touch with every school throughout England. The movement has so far been confined to children suitable for skilled work, but there must always be many who will enter the humbler paths. May we not look forward to a time when there may be an "after-care" committee in touch with every school which shall see that each child who needs the help shall be placed in the best work possible, skilled or unskilled where necessary, and that each shall receive a continuance of education, so that the promise shown in school life may be fulfilled, and the opportunity be given in every case for the full development of ability, intelligence and character.

H. W. JEVONS.

1. See Appendix, page 461.

2. A list of the trades in which these boys and girls were placed as apprentices and learners is given in the Appendix, pages 464-6. In addition, 96 girls were placed as improvers and assistants in various trades.

APPENDIX.

A. THE APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION, 55 DENISON HOUSE, VAUXHALL BRIDGE ROAD, S.W.

President: Lord Stanley of Alderley.

Vice-President: Mr. H. Llewellyn Smith, C.B.

Hon. Secretary: Mrs. M. Beer, M.A.

Secretary: Miss Dalglish.

The object of the Association is the promotion of thorough industrial training for boys and girls, by apprenticeship and other methods, including arrangements for attendance at Trade Schools and at Technical Classes.

The work is carried on by means of Local Committees, which are closely in touch with Elementary Schools and working boys' and girls' clubs within their districts. The Committees collect industrial information, find suitable openings for boys and girls who apply to them for help, and make terms between the employer and the apprentice or "learner," with a view to securing fair conditions to them, and satisfactory workers to the employer.

The Central Office of the Association exists in order to bring all local agencies, dealing with the skilled employment of boys and girls into co-operation with each other.

Its functions are:—

- (1) To receive, co-ordinate and supplement, when necessary, the industrial information obtained by the local committees, and to give affiliated Committees access to all such information.
- (2) To encourage the formation of new Committees, by acquainting their promoters with the methods of those already in existence, and by placing the industrial information already collected at their disposal.

- (3) To arouse public interest in the objects of the Association, by organising Meetings and Conferences, and to issue such literature as may be useful, *e.g.*, pamphlets on trades, suggestions to new Committees, etc.

B. LIST OF LOCAL COMMITTEES AFFILIATED TO THE APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION AND OF CORRESPONDING COMMITTEES IN THE PROVINCES.

1. Southwark (West) Apprenticeship and Registry Committee, Women's University Settlement, 45 Nelson Square, Blackfriars Road, S.E.

Hon. Secretary: Miss F. H. Durham.

Assistant Secretary: Miss M. E. King.

2. Hampstead Apprenticeship and Skilled Employment Committee, Wells Buildings, Oriel Place, Hampstead, N.W.

Hon. Secretary: Miss L. C. Jevons.

Secretary: Miss H. E. Matheson.

3. Stepney Skilled Employment Committee, 52 High Street, Whitechapel, E.

Hon. Secretaries: Miss Jevons.

Miss H. S. Weaver.

4. Bethnal Green and Shoreditch Skilled Employment Committee, S. Hild's East, Old Michal Street, Bethnal Green, E.

Hon. Secretaries: Miss Anson.

Mr. F. Mount.

Captain Morse.

5. Central Apprenticeship Committee, Invalid Children's Aid Association, 69 Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, S.W.

Hon. Secretary: Mrs. Nairne.

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6. Employment Bureau, West Central Jewish Girls' Club
(Girls only), 8 Dean Street, Soho.

Hon. Secretaries: Miss L. H. Montagu.
Miss C. Lewis.

7. Union of Jewish Women (Girls only), 59 Gloucester
Place, Portman Square, W.

Secretary: Miss K. Halford.

8. Shoreditch Trades Registry and Apprenticeship Com-
mittee (Girls only), Maurice Hostel, 51 Herbert
Street, Hoxton, N.

Hon. Secretary: Miss Morley.

9. Holloway Skilled Employment Committee, 457 Hollo-
way Road, N.

Hon. Secretary: Miss Bray.

10. North Lambeth Apprenticeship and Skilled Employ-
ment Committee, 131 Kennington Road, S.E.

Hon. Secretary: Miss Sheepshanks.

CORRESPONDING COMMITTEES IN THE PROVINCES.

1. Liverpool Registry and Apprenticeship Committee.

Hon. Secretary: Miss Forman, 294 Netherfield
Road North, Liverpool.

2. Hove Skilled Employment Committee.

Hon. Secretary: Mr. J. Freeman Dunn, 52
Lansdowne Place, Hove.

3. Hastings C.S.U. Employment of Children's Committee.

Hon. Secretary: Miss A. E. Newill, 2 Anglesea
Terrace, St. Leonards-on-Sea.

4. Council for the Industrial Advancement of Young
People in Oxford.

Hon. Secretaries: Mrs. Denniston, 6 St. Mar-
garet's Road, Oxford.

Mrs. Lewis, 13 Rawlinson
Road, Oxford.

5. Cambridge Boys' Employment Registry, 82 Regent
Street, Cambridge.

Hon. Secretary: Miss Jebb.

C. LIST OF TRADES AND INDUSTRIES TO WHICH BOYS AND GIRLS WERE APPRENTICED, OR IN WHICH THEY WERE PLACED OUT AS LEARNERS, BY THE COMMITTEES AFFILIATED TO THE APPRENTICESHIP AND SKILLED EMPLOYMENT ASSOCIATION DURING THE YEAR 1906.

Boys.

Apprentices,

Art Metal Work...	1
Bookbinding	4
Bootmaking...	1
Billiard Table making	1
Carpentry	2
Carpentry and Joinery	1
Coachbuilding (body-making)	1
Colour-printing	1
Compositing	2
Engineering	4
Engineering (electrical)	2
Engraving	1
French-polishing	1
Furniture Decorating	1
Glass and Sign Writing	4
Jewellery	1
Joinery and Shopfitting	1
Leather Case making...	1
Machine Coopering	1
Military Musical Instrument making	1
Mechanical Dentistry...	1
Motor-body building	1
Pattern-making (Engineers)	2
Pianoforte making	1
Plumbing	1
Printing	5
Printer's Reader	1
Pulley Blocks (fitting and turning)...	1
Smithing and Hot-water pipe fitting	1
Shoemaking...	1
Tailoring	1
Upholstery	3

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Watchmaking	3
Wheelwright and Vanbuilder	1
Woodcarving	1
								<hr/>
Total	56

Learners.

Bookbinding	4
Brass Foundry	1
Boxmaking	1
Bootmaking	1
Clerk	1
Candied Fruit work	1
Chemical Works	2
Cork Trade	2
Country Work	1
Draughtsmanship	1
Engineering	5
Engineering (electrical)	1
Hospital Porter	2
House and Garden Boy	1
Laboratory Boy	1
Librarian and Library Boy	2
Messenger Boy	1
Officers' Uniform making	1
Optical Instrument making	1
Page Boy	1
Packing	1
Packing-case making	1
Repairing	1
Service	2
Stationery	1
Tin Smithing	1
Ticket-writing	1
Wheelwright	1
Weighing-machine making	1
Miscellaneous	3
								<hr/>
Total	44

Total Boys 100

GIRLS.
Apprentices.

Boxmaking	2
Compositing	1
Corset-making	4
Drapery	1
Dressmaking	43
Embroidery and Lacemaking	2
Feather Curling	1
Florist	1
Gold Lace Embroidery	2
Ironing	1
Millinery	7
Relief Stamping... ..	1
Typewriting, etc.	2
Upholstery	2
Total	70

Learners.

Art Cushions and Cosy Work	1
Book Folding	3
Belt and Blouse making	1
Blouse making	3
Boot-work	5
Bookbinding	1
Boxmaking	2
Confectionery	1
Clerkships	5
Corset-making	1
Dressmaking	18
Embroidery	1
Jewel-case lining and covering... ..	1
Laundry-work	2
Leather-work	1
Machining	17
Mantle-making	1
Millinery	6
Magazine sorting	1
Service... ..	11
Technical Scholars	2
Upholstery	3
Vellum sewing	2
Total	89
Total Girls	159

CAMBRIDGE BOYS' EMPLOYMENT REGISTRY.

The aims and methods of skilled employment committees are described by Miss Jevons in her article upon the subject in this volume. The Cambridge Committee have organised their office upon lines which have now become usual (though it may be observed that they have no fund at their disposal from which to advance premiums for apprenticeship), and it will be understood that the aims and nature of the work can vary but slightly whether it be undertaken in London or in the provinces. The present article must therefore be regarded as merely supplementary; much is omitted which would involve needless recapitulation, while those points are emphasized which, owing to the industrial characteristics of the town, have more especially forced themselves upon the attention of the Committee, in the early days of their work.

The Cambridge Boys' Employment Registry was started in the spring of this year (1907) about the same time that work of a similar character was being initiated at Oxford. Here it was started experimentally, in connexion with one school only, but as the utility of the work in part depends upon the area covered, it is hoped that its scope will very soon be extended. The school chosen was a higher grade school. The headmaster kindly undertook the task of drawing up a complete list of the boys who had left during the last two years, stating the occupations they had since pursued. Of those who had left between September, 1905, and March, 1907, in number 59, 10 had become errand boys, 7 clerks, 4 greengrocers' assistants, 4 printers' apprentices, 3 grocers' assistants, 2 telegraph boys, 2 office boys. The trades of booksellers, harness makers, bakers, bicycle makers, butchers, milkmen, drapers were each being entered by 2 boys, and each of the following by one: tailor,

plumber, hatter, chemist, sugar boiler, watchmaker, picture frame maker, basket maker; one had become a page boy, one was working in a coal yard, another in a bus yard, another in an oil shop, one had become a library assistant.

The work proposed by the Committee was then made known to all parents, who, as it was thought, might wish to avail themselves of the help afforded in placing their sons. The majority proved only too eager to do so. The proportion of boys, however, who appeared to be in more or less unsatisfactory employment, to the total number of those who had left the school, was but small; in a poorer school it would be, of course, far higher.

The chief difficulty in connexion with the work which is anticipated in Cambridge lies in the comparative scarcity of opportunities, for boys of average abilities, of securing training in work which offers a reasonable prospect of a good livelihood. There are, indeed, for intelligent boys, some exceptional opportunities for training, such as, for instance, those afforded in connexion with the work in the university laboratories and by the Cambridge Scientific Instrument Company. There are also many shops of a good standing, where a boy may advantageously begin his career. These are, however, only for the few, and for the many it will no doubt be difficult to find satisfactory openings. There are no large factories where employment may be sought. The staple industry of the town, the building trade, has, of recent years, so much declined that parents are generally averse to their sons entering it or the allied trades. Possibly the printing trade offers as large a field for employment as any other industry in the town, but, on a rough calculation, perhaps not more than a hundred boys are engaged in it. In respect of the school we have mentioned, about one-eighth of the total number of boys who had left between the dates mentioned had

become clerks. During the same period, a sixth of the total number had become errand boys. This proportion of errand boys, high as it seems, would probably be low, if comparison were made with other schools, while amongst the boys from this higher grade school there were none who had been attracted into the casual employment which is the bane of a university town. The work of an errand boy tends indeed, under ordinary circumstances, to absorb the years which are educationally the most valuable, while failing to qualify him to earn his livelihood in adult life, but it is infinitely worse when boys live on the odd sixpences of undergraduates and acquire idle and loafing habits which quite unfit them for any regular occupation. Yet amongst the many boys who drift into this purposeless life there must be many who are, both physically and intellectually, quite capable of being taught to do useful and remunerative work. The difficulty will probably lie not so much in getting hold of them as in providing them with the chance of receiving such teaching as they need.

Difficult, however, as the committee may find it to obtain really satisfactory training for average boys in work affording them good prospects, the mere establishment of a centre of information can hardly fail to be of use to parents. Without it, they are not in a position to choose well the work of their sons. In any case an ideal choice may not always be open to them, but they cannot even choose what is relatively best under the given circumstances without such full information as is at present very difficult, if not impossible, for them to obtain. A man may know the conditions of labour in a few other trades besides his own, but his knowledge cannot extend over the whole field of industry open to his son. The size of this field, even in a small town, is exemplified by the number of different occupations entered by the boys from the

school mentioned, each trade figuring in the list being represented by an average of two boys only. In the course of this routine work and also by means of special investigations, the committee will accumulate little by little a great quantity of information regarding the conditions of labour, wages, etc., in various trades, and the qualifications needed by those entering them. But besides such general knowledge, parents require information as to the actual openings available, and this is again impossible without some sort of registry office. Without it, indeed, it remains a matter of chance whether the right boys get into the right places; the fitting of our boys into the places they are destined to hold in the world of industry is reduced to a kind of game of musical chairs: the boys leave school, the music stops, each flings himself into whatever vacancy he is fortunate enough to secure. No doubt it is the sharpest of the boys who seize the best openings, but the number of square pegs that get jumped into round holes can hardly tend to strengthen the total fabric. Say that a vacancy occurs in a good firm. It is known at once without advertisement to a number of parents. They do not know, however, of perhaps six other vacancies that have occurred at the same time, vacancies more suitable possibly, but in regions remote from their knowledge. Knowing, however, that good openings are few and good lads many, they send their sons to take their chance at the particular firm they know about. The employers will get quite as many applications as they can deal with, without advertisement. Many of the applicants are, however, so obviously unsuitable that their application is a mere waste of time, nor is it possible to go very carefully into the circumstances, or perhaps even the qualifications, of the remainder. The one that appears best is picked out, but all the time the probabilities are that the employer would have been better

and more easily suited if his choice had not been confined to the chance lot of unknown lads who rushed in to apply. Thus the limitation of choice both on the part of employers and parents militates against the interests of both.

It may therefore be hoped that even in a town where the chances of obtaining instruction in remunerative employments are more than usually limited, the work of the Committee will be of use in establishing a centre of information. It is evident that everything that can be said in favour of ordinary registries for domestic servants or others, applies with much greater force to a registry office for boys, because their first employment so often determines the employment of a life time. It is of the highest importance that everything should be done to facilitate this momentous step in their life, and to secure its being a step, not downhill, but on to the first rung of a ladder. Those also who devote themselves to this work can hardly fail to make the boys more aware that whether they acquit themselves well or ill in their industrial life is a matter of no small concern to others besides themselves. Indirectly they may help to widen the current conception of the claims and possibilities of industrial life by keeping before those who are just entering upon it chivalrous ideals and high standards in regard to the work which they undertake.

E. JERR.

CHAPTER XVI.

The Organization of Continuation Schools in Scotland.

IN Scotland the question of encouraging the further education of boys and girls who have completed their course at the elementary day school has been approached from two directions. First, encouragement has been given to children to remain longer in the day schools by an improvement in the course of instruction in the closing years of the course. Secondly, there has been a re-grouping of the evening classes and a systematic effort to make the instruction which they provide bear more directly upon the industrial and commercial callings in which the pupils are engaged. The first of these two reforms has been facilitated by the change in the law of school attendance which was made by the Education (Scotland) Act of 1901, and by the encouragement given by Government to the development of higher grade schools and of supplementary courses in the elementary day schools. The second has been furthered by the general movement of public opinion, especially in the industrial districts, in favour of extended facilities for the different grades of technical education. The result of this combined effort to encourage prolonged attendance at the day school, and to systematise the work of the evening classes has been a steady rise in the attendance at continuation classes, especially at those of a more technical character. But this improvement has for the most part been confined to the larger towns. In the country districts the work of the continuation classes shows little advance. The Act of Parliament which now regulates the employment and attendance of children at school

in Scotland was passed 1901. It declares it to be "the duty of every parent to provide efficient elementary education in reading, writing and arithmetic for his children who are between 5 and 14 years of age." It forbids any person to take into his employment any child (1) who is under the age of 12 years or (2) who, being of the age of 12 years and not more than 14 years, has not obtained exemption from the obligation to attend school from the School Board of the district. Thirdly, it gives power to any School Board, where after due inquiry in each case such exemption seems to be justified, to grant to individual children over 12 years of age, exemption from the obligation to attend school for such time as the School Board shall think fit, and with such further conditions as to the amount and manner of further attendance at school which the child shall give until it reaches the age of 14, as the School Board in question shall think it desirable to impose. But each School Board which grants exemption is required to enter the names of the children so exempted in a register, and to record a statement of the circumstances in which, and the conditions upon which, such exemption has been granted in each case. Moreover the Scotch Education Department is empowered by the Act to call upon any School Board, at any time, for a return of the children to whom such exemption has been given, and of the circumstances relating to each case. If, after due inquiry, the Department finds that the attendance of scholars within the district of a School Board, or in any part of its district, is unsatisfactory, and that exemption from school attendance has been granted unjustifiably or with insufficient conditions, it may call upon the School Board to recall exemptions thus granted, or to take steps to improve the school attendance in its district. If the School Board fails to comply with these requirements within a reasonable time,

the Department has power to withhold or reduce the Parliamentary grant payable to the School Board in question. The results of the working of this Act are satisfactory. In 1905 the estimated population of Scotland between the ages of 12 and 14 was 186,901; the number of scholars of 12 to 14 years of age on the Registers of all schools in Scotland was 178,521; the number of children aged 12 to 14 who, whether conditionally or without conditions, were exempted from school attendance by the School Boards was 7,822. Thus the proportion of children who do not remain at school till they are 14 years of age is small. The steps which have been taken to make the work of the elementary schools more valuable to the scholars who thus remain under systematic instruction in the day-time till they are 14 years of age or over, have consisted partly in the provision of new courses of study, partly in the institution of the merit certificate. An important factor in the organisation of the system is what is known as the qualifying examination which is usually taken by pupils of from 12 to 13 years of age. When a scholar has been placed in the highest class of the senior division of the school, and has been in regular attendance at that class for not less than 6 months, he may, if certified by the teacher of the class and by the headmaster of the school to be of good proficiency in the work of the class, be presented to the inspector for approval of his enrolment either in a supplementary course or in a higher grade department. The code of regulations lays down on broad lines the standard of attainment to which every pupil presented for this qualifying examination (which need not be an examination of individual children) is expected to attain. The scholars who pass this qualifying examination may receive instruction in what are known as supplementary courses in the elementary day school. The aim of these classes is, while

continuing and developing the previous studies of the children, to give a fresh interest to their work and to make the instruction bear upon the probable practical requirements of the pupil's after-school life. But the aim of the supplementary courses is not narrowly utilitarian. "School work has for its end and aim objects more important than preparation in the narrow sense for any particular occupation. It should aim at producing the useful citizen, imbued with a sense of responsibility and of obligation towards the society in which he lives; it should render him (so far as the school can do so) fit in body and alert in mind, and should prepare him for the rational enjoyment of his leisure time as well as fit him for earning his living."¹ The supplementary courses may be arranged in one or more of three divisions; a commercial course, an industrial course and a household management (girls) course. There is also a course for rural schools. Freedom, however, is allowed to individual schools to submit alternative schemes of study. Certain subjects of instruction are common to all elementary classes. These include (1) the study of English, the main object of which is to create a taste for good literature; and (2) certain studies bearing upon matters which it is of concern that all the pupils should know, whatever their occupations in after life are to be. Under this head the code specifies:—

- (a) The laws of health.
- (b) Money matters—thrift, investment, insurance.
- (c) The conditions of trade and employment.
- (d) The institutions of Government under which we live.
- (e) The Empire—its history, growth and trade; our Colonies, and the openings for enterprise which they afford.
- (f) Nature study, drill, singing.

1. Circular 374 of Scotch Education Department, Feb. 16, 1903.

Grants are paid at a higher rate in respect of the children over 12 years of age who are enrolled in supplementary courses. In the industrial and household management courses special encouragement is given to manual instruction, workshop practice, and practical methods of teaching generally.

Any scholar over 14 years of age who has followed a supplementary course for not less than a year, and is certified by the headmaster to be of good character and conduct, receives a certificate of merit if he is shown to the satisfaction of the Inspector to have made good progress in the studies of the approved course. Thus the certificate of merit is awarded on the judgment of the teacher of the class, confirmed by the headmaster of the school, subject to the approval of the Inspector. The code requires that each pupil enrolled in a supplementary course shall keep an individual record of the work done by him. This record must be submitted to the Inspector for verification and test on any of his visits. The accuracy of the record is vouched for by the teacher and becomes the basis of entry upon the merit certificate. This arrangement for the award of the merit certificate to scholars over 14 years of age is designed to avoid the evil of cramming for a special examination at the end of the day school course.

Further encouragement is given to the prolongation of the day school course by the provisions of the Scotch Code relating to higher grade schools.

A school or a department of a school may be recognized as a higher grade school or department where a special staff of duly qualified teachers is provided for the instruction of pupils who have passed the qualifying examination mentioned above, and where the school provides a well-defined course of instruction approved by the department and extending over not less than 3 years. In

the higher grade schools there must be one duly qualified teacher for every 30 pupils on the roll. The course must provide for the instruction of all the pupils by a well-graduated scheme in the following subjects; namely, English (including history and geography), mathematics (including arithmetic), at least one language other than English, and instruction in experimental science and in drawing. It will be observed that the general tendency of all these regulations is to encourage prolonged attendance at the day school, as being (when the schools are good) the soundest foundation for further education in later years.

The continuation classes which provide further instruction for those who have left school are, in Scotland, grouped in four divisions:—

- (1) Preparatory classes for the completion of general elementary education.
- (2) Classes for specialized instruction—elementary.
- (3) Classes for specialized instruction—advanced.
- (4) Auxiliary classes.

The preparatory classes in Division 1 are open without restriction to any pupils who are free from the obligation to attend school. The general practice of remaining at the day school till 14 years of age makes this branch of continuation school work of minor importance.

The object of the classes in Division 2 is to give elementary instruction in special subjects, particularly such as may be of use to pupils who are engaged in, or preparing for, any particular trade, occupation or profession. Discretion is given to the managers in the admission of pupils to these classes, but higher grants are confined to pupils who are over 16 years of age, or who, if under 16, have obtained a certificate of merit, or have satisfactorily passed through a preparatory continuation class, or have been for

at least one year at a higher grade school or a secondary school. The subjects of instruction are classified as follows—

- (a) English subjects.
- (b) Languages.
- (c) Commercial subjects.
- (d) Art.
- (e) Mathematics.
- (f) Science.
- (g) Applied mathematics and science.
- (h) Handwork.

Division 3 includes organized courses of instruction extending over several years in the subjects named in Division 2, or in other subjects of a more advanced character which may be regarded as a development of the subjects in Division 2. The conditions of admission to the first year of any course of Division 3 are the same as the corresponding classes in Division 2. Students who have passed certain examinations may be registered for the second or third year's course without passing through the first.

Division 4 (Auxiliary Classes) includes courses of instruction in physical exercises, military drill, vocal music, wood carving, fancy needlework, and other subjects approved by the Department. These classes are open to all pupils who are free from the obligation to attend school, but it is a condition of grant that the Department must be satisfied that the managers are using all reasonable endeavour to encourage the attendance of the pupils at classes in other divisions also.

Within the last two or three years a noticeable increase has taken place in the number of technical classes, specially in the advanced grade. This increase has been furthered by the efforts of the Central Institutions which are specially

recognized by the Department as places of advanced instruction in technology, agriculture and art. These Central Institutions are ten in number and conveniently placed in different parts of Scotland. Their influence extends over a wide area. Besides providing systematic courses of day and evening instruction within their own walls, they send out Instructors to the neighbouring districts. The Central Institutions, recognized in 1905-6, were as follows:—

NAME.	Session 1905-1906.				
	Number of Students instructed.		Grant from the Department.		
	Day.	Evening.	£ s. d.		
Aberdeen and North of Scotland College of Agriculture	168	22	2,251	14	5
	(Central Classes only)				
Aberdeen Gordon's College and Gray's School of Art	65	834	1,432	10	2
Dundee Technical Institute	—	1,095	1,291	10	5
Edinburgh and East of Scotland College of Agriculture	113	185	2,030	14	2
	(Central Classes only)				
Edinburgh Heriot-Watt College	182	3,539	3,361	13	8
Glasgow and West of Scotland Technical College	535	3,812	8,446	17	6
Glasgow Athenaeum Commercial College ...	199	983	698	0	8
Glasgow School of Art	241	1,052	2,415	8	4
Leith Nautical College	150	171	330	17	3
The West of Scotland Agricultural College (including Kilmarnock Dairy School)...	90	131	3,031	1	2
	(Central Classes only)				
Totals	1,743	11,824	25,290	7	9

A characteristic feature of the recent organization of technical evening classes, in Scotland as in England, has been the adoption of the "course system." This system requires the pupils to attend a carefully arranged group of courses of instruction instead of taking up different branches indiscriminately and without coherence of plan. Employers of labour, especially in the engineering trades,

are taking increased interest in the work of the evening classes, but there are frequent complaints of serious interference with the attendance, owing to young lads having to work overtime. Many firms not only pay the class fees of their apprentices but offer a small bonus or give a slight increase in wages in cases where attendance and progress are reported as satisfactory. An engineering firm (Messrs. Cochran and Co.) at Newbie, near Annan, take the entire management of the technical instruction of their apprentices. They have organized a three years' course in practical mathematics, machine construction and boiler making practice. Accommodation is provided for the classes within the works and the students attend on two mornings per week. The teachers, who are well qualified in mathematical and engineering methods, are members of the firm's staff. No apprentice is admitted to the works drawing office unless he has attended the classes for two years. The certificate of service given to each apprentice at the end of his apprenticeship makes special mention of his work in the classes.¹

In the commercial centres the classes in shorthand, book-keeping and typewriting are largely attended, and the women's classes in dressmaking and millinery are popular. The question of staffing in the evening classes presents difficulties. In the technical classes many of the teachers are men practically engaged in the trades. But for the more general forms of continuation class work the elementary day school teachers are not only the best, but often the only, teachers available. Their practice in keeping discipline and in registering attendance, and their knowledge of educational method, naturally fit them for evening

1. "Reports and Statistics relating to Continuation Classes and Central Institutions in Scotland for the year 1905-06." London: Wyman and Sons, 1907. Cd. 3472.

work. But it is impossible for a teacher who has been hard at work all through the day in the day school to come to evening classes with great freshness of mind. Opinion, therefore, is tending towards some arrangement which would excuse the elementary day school teacher from part of his day work in order to leave him fresh for the evening work. In the rural districts the difficulties in the way of establishing continuation schools are serious. The country School Boards are reluctant to undertake the expense which the efficient organization of continuation work would involve. It has been suggested that all exemptions from school attendance granted to children under 14 years of age in rural districts should be made conditional on attendance at continuation classes for a further period of years, and in order to provide an adequate staff for the continuation work it has been further suggested that special grants should be given to School Boards in rural districts to enable them to strengthen the staff of the day school by one fully certified teacher, who would only teach part of the day in the day school on those days when he was required for continuation work in the evenings.

It is significant that in the Education (Scotland) Bill, which was introduced by the Government in the session of 1907 but subsequently dropped, there was a clause which would, if enacted, have given power to School Boards to make bye-laws requiring the attendance at continuation classes, until the age of 17, of young persons not otherwise receiving a suitable education. The clause did not apply to the case of any person who would have to go more than two miles to a continuation class. The Bill further proposed that if any person should knowingly employ any young person at any time when his attendance at a continuation class was required by a local bye-law, he (the employer) should be liable on summary conviction to a

penalty not exceeding forty shillings, or in case of a second or subsequent offence, not exceeding £5. It was also provided that a like penalty might be inflicted upon any parent or guardian who, by neglecting to exercise due care, should conduce to failure on the part of a young person to attend a continuation class as required by such bye-law.

It was also proposed by the Bill to give powers to School Boards, in granting to children exemption from the obligation to attend school, to impose (as a condition of such exemption) attendance up to an age not exceeding 17, either for part of the year at a day school or, where a special continuation class is provided, at a continuation class. This was especially intended for country districts, in some of which public opinion favours the granting of exemption at 12 years of age from day school attendance in the summer, provided that the boy attends in the winter till he is 16.

Proposals have been made from time to time that special efforts should be made to encourage physical exercises in the case of lads over school age in attendance at continuation schools. It is clear, however, that any such requirements would need discriminating application.¹ A further matter which is engaging the attention of those engaged in Scottish education is the desirability of combining some literary element with the other work of the technical classes, but here again exigencies of time make it difficult to exact an ideal course of evening study.

1. See "Report of Royal Commission on Physical Training (Scotland), 1903." Vol. I., p. 20.

CHAPTER XVII.

The People's High Schools in Denmark.

THE first object that meets the view of the visitor to Copenhagen, as he steps from the Central Station, is an obelisk of sandstone, standing in the middle of the street and called *Friheds Støtte* (Freedom's Pillar). It commemorates the freeing of the serfs in 1788, and bears on the side facing the city these words: "The King saw that Civic Freedom fixed in righteous law gives Love of Country, Courage for its Defence, Desire for Knowledge, Longing for Industry, Hope of Prosperity"; and on the side toward the country, "The King bade that Serfdom should cease; that to the Landlaws should be given Order and Might, that the free Peasant may become brave and enlightened, industrious and good, an honourable citizen, in happiness."

The immediate results of these changes were such as to justify these confident anticipations. They were justified still more fully when these emancipated peasants, becoming small freeholders, began to flock to some novel schools for grown-up folk of modest means, which were begun in a humble way half-a-century after the erection of this pillar, and have in an unwonted degree fostered the love of country, given a thirst for knowledge, imparted to industry a marvellous ingenuity and success, and made life in many simple homes fuller of nobler interests and higher cares.

I shall never forget my first visit, one December morning, thirteen years ago, to Askov, the earliest and the most famous of these schools. I had landed that morning at

Esbjerg early enough to catch the first train across Jutland; and reached the station at Vejlen—half way between the west and east coasts—just as the sun was rising. Half-an-hour's walk in a south-western direction easily brought me to the school. The way, through a flat, somewhat uninteresting country, was easy to find, for I had the telegraph wires for my guide. The buildings seemed to me unpretending enough, but they had been more unpretending still, when, twenty-seven years before, the school had had to move here, after the war of 1864, from its former position at Rödning in North Schleswig. I had had some slight correspondence with the Principal the year before, and received a warm welcome. The buildings were arranged around a square courtyard, and the chief entrance, with the words *Flors Højskole* over the doorway, was in the west side. The whole of the south side was occupied by the gymnasium and its tower. The buildings on the other two sides furnished smaller class-rooms, laboratories, museums and some out-houses. Those on the north side have since disappeared to make room for the new *Red House*, with its fine *Dagmar Sal*. On the west side of the school is a spacious pleasant garden with shrubberies. At some little distance from the school are teachers' houses dotted about here and there. In two of them there is room to board seventy or eighty women students. Close by a third is a windmill, which generates electric light and power.

If we enter by the chief door of the school, we find ourselves in a small hall. To the right is the dining-room. Facing us is a staircase leading to dormitories. There are two, three or, in some schools, four beds in a room. At the foot of the staircase is the entrance to the Principal's private apartments. On the left is the students' common-room, with newspapers and some

reference books. As we pass through this, we come to the old lecture-hall and so to the gymnasium and the library with its 15,000 to 20,000 volumes. The library has since been removed to the handsome new *White House*, built out in the garden. About the same time a church was built for the school and its friends on the far side of the pond beyond the Red House.

My visit fell on Christmas Eve, when work was suspended for some days. But I returned for a week a fortnight later, and had many opportunities both then and afterwards of seeing what a day at Askov was like.

From the beginning of November to the end of April, there are about ninety-five men and sixty-five women students. More than four-fifths are first-year and the rest second-year students.¹ Nearly all are between 18 and 25 years of age; sometimes as many as one-fifth are over that age. Their parents are farmers, cottars, artisans, civil servants, teachers, tradesmen and merchants. I must further premise that the instruction at Askov is of a higher kind than at the other high schools—that it begins where most of the others leave off, except from May to the end of July, when there is a course of an ordinary character for about two hundred young women.

The bell in the morning rings for prayers at 7-45 with the Principal and his family. The attendance is good, though entirely voluntary. After breakfast classes begin. The students take either a first-year or a second-year course. Let us follow one of the first-year men in his work through the day. From 8 to 9 there are on two days of the week lectures in historical geometry (*i.e.*, geometry taken in the order in which the different parts of the

1. The exact numbers last winter were 125 men and 95 women, fifty of whom were second-year students.

subject were discovered); on two other days there are oral examinations in physics, in order to see whether the lectures on that subject have been understood; the other two hours are given to lectures on the industrial life of Denmark. From 9 to 10 the subject four days a week is the mother tongue. Here the students are broken up into smaller groups for class instruction; on the other two days there is an oral examination in the lectures on the history of the world. Then comes a short break with opportunity for slight refreshment. From 10-30 to 11-30 there are lectures on the history of the North on three days, and on historical physics the other three days. The lectures this hour as well as those the last hour of the day are attended by the whole school both first year and second year, both men and women. The lecturer uses neither manuscript nor note. His whole object is to secure the intelligent interest of his hearers; and when that is secured, they give him both eyes and ears, and no question of note-taking arises. The use of text-books is reduced to a minimum; before the oral examination comes off next day, some short handbook or brief printed, outline is read by the student. Every such lecture begins and ends with a song; and if the subject be historical or literary, there is no difficulty in choosing a song appropriate to the occasion, for out of the 579 songs in the song-book in most general use more than one-half are national songs in great variety, or songs which range over the whole field of history. Such songs are sung in unison; and both tunes and words seem familiar to all. The next hour is always given to gymnastics on Ling's system. Then comes the mid-day meal, consisting always of two dishes, one with the spoon (soup or *gröd*) and the other a dish of hot meat and vegetables. There can be no luxuries when tenpence a day has to cover

the cost of board; but there is always an abundance of good, appetizing food.

The first lesson after dinner is, on four days, one in drawing, and on the remaining two in book-keeping; and the second is in singing. There is then a short break for afternoon coffee. The next hour is devoted to English two days a week; oral examination in history of the North two days; hygiene one day; interpretation of the Bible one day. From 4-30 to 5-30 geography two days; arithmetic two days; oral examination in geometry two days. The last hour, from 6 to 7, is given to a general lecture for the whole school in the history of the world, or on some scientific subject. Then comes the evening meal. Lights out soon after ten.¹

It will be seen that in the six months' course more than 300 lessons are given in the chief subject—history. Physical science (in this particular school) comes next, whilst mathematics and the mother tongue come not far behind. In history is included scripture history and church history. And so religious instruction is given historically rather than dogmatically.

There must have been more than nine thousand pupils at Askov since the school was begun in 1865.

The father of these People's High Schools (Folkhøjskoler) was N. F. S. Grundtvig (1783—1872), to whom was given the honorary title of bishop on the fiftieth anniversary of his ordination. Though he was ordained as minister in the Danish Church in his twenty-seventh year, it was not until he was fifty-six years of age that he settled down for the remaining three and thirty years of his life to regular, continuous pastoral work. His career

¹ There are slight differences in this time-table from year to year. In that for 1906-7, the morning's work is one hour longer and the afternoon's one hour shorter than before, i.e., dinner one hour later.

in the meantime was a somewhat chequered one; but the varying experiences and struggles through which he passed, brightened indeed by the sympathy and help of a few attached and sometimes powerful friends, gave him both insight and enthusiasm—insight enabling him to lay down in firmest lines the plan of a kind of school unheard of before, and enthusiasm with which to inspire the long series of workers in the service of that school. He was distinguished as poet, historian, theologian and worker in education. His educational work was not a thing by itself, but had its precise form determined by his poetic activity, his historical researches and his theological views. And so it becomes very difficult to describe it in few words. One of his historical works bears as its motto a quotation from a Swiss historian, “Where there is most life, there is the victory.” And that may well enough stand as the motto also of what he did as the founder of the People’s High Schools in Denmark. He felt deeply the depressed state of his country during and after Napoleon’s wars. He was indignant at the cold indifference which characterised the rationalism of the time, and wished to awaken his countrymen from their sleep, to recall them to a sense of the spiritual realities that underlie the events of life. At no period of his earlier career was he able to swim with the stream. His very first sermon after ordination procured him a rebuke. His vivid conception and bold realisation of Christian doctrines, while securing for him the ardent attachment of a few, much more often brought on him the suspicion and bitter opposition of the many. Pulpits were closed to him, preferment became impossible; and time after time he had to turn to other tasks. Six years he employed in putting the old chroniclers of Norway and Denmark—Snorre and Saxo—into a modern dress, thus seeking to

awaken his countrymen to all that was noble in the ideals of their forefathers. But books, he found, could not do it; and, after many years, when at last he and his friends were able to realise their High School plans, he was led to rely upon "the living word that goes from the heart to the heart" as his chief instrument. "The living word," "the living voice," are expressions to be found on page after page of Grundtvig's religious and controversial writings. The ordinary Lutheran view bases Christianity upon the written word; but in Grundtvig's day, almost as much as in our own, controversies raged round our sacred books both with regard to their number, their origin and interpretation—controversies that shake the position of those who trust in a "book religion." It was in the interest of such that Grundtvig cast about for some other co-ordinate foundation for Christianity. With one foot at least upon such an independent foundation it would be possible to examine more calmly and dispassionately the other foundation that had hitherto been found all sufficient. And just as the Quaker finds such an independent foundation in the "inner light" quite apart from any sacrament, so a Lutheran like Grundtvig found in the sacrament, and especially in the baptismal confession or apostles' creed, to which he assigned a much earlier date than that generally given, a "living voice," summoning men to new life. With his religious view we can here have nothing to do. But it will be seen how his religious doctrine has suggested and reinforced his educational method and led his friends and followers to make the most of the gift of speech within them. And if I may anticipate a little, I would say that lively, witty, terse and often eloquent and moving speech, in which facts and ideas bear an unusually large proportion to the merely hortatory matter, is the distinguishing element in the work of the successful high school teacher.

From 1821 to 1825 Grundtvig was again in clerical employment; but in the latter year a controversy with a young theological professor had an unexpected result. He called upon the professor either to retract his views or to resign his position in the Danish Church. His opponent, instead of answering his arguments, sued him for libel. And the law of libel was then of such a kind that Grundtvig was cast in damages; and anything he published must first be approved by the Public Censor. When he found the sympathies of people in authority were not with him, he threw up his living, and for the next thirteen years scarcely held any regular office in the Danish Church. He had a pension of sixty or seventy pounds a year for prosecuting historical research; in addition to which one generous friend among his brethren kept him supplied with money, in the hope, which was not disappointed, that the freedom from wearing anxiety on account of wife and children would make it possible for Grundtvig to make large additions to Church psalmody and national song.¹ In these years of leisure he made further brilliant researches into Scandinavian mythology; wrote a book on the history of the world, which inspired Kristen Kold and many others who afterwards made their mark in high school work; and with the help of a travelling stipend from the King, devoted the summers of 1829, 1830 and 1831 to the study of Anglo-Saxon manuscripts in England. He not only succeeded in awakening the British Museum authorities, who regarded him, he says, "as a half-mad poet," to the unique importance of the Exeter book, of which, at his suggestion, they had a copy made; but was also deeply impressed

1. Grundtvig was a brilliant ballad writer. His son Prof. Svend Grundtvig inherited the same tastes, and has given his countrymen a version, alike exquisite and scholarly, of the early English and Scottish ballads.

by the energy of our public life. He refers to it again and again in the occasional writings of the next twenty years. That energy he wished to transfer to his own countrymen, who seemed to him to be asleep in comparison. But if he wished to produce an English result, he had no idea of doing it in the English way. When, twenty years later, Denmark obtained her constitution, Grundtvig could not be said to be one of the first in the movement. At the most, it won his passive assent. His method, which he urged with great eloquence and persistence, was quite different; he called for high schools for grown up folk.

"It is," he says, "my highest wish as a citizen that soon, and better to-day than to-morrow, there may be opened a Danish high school accessible to young people all over the land, where they may readily get leave and opportunity to become better acquainted, not only with human nature and human life in general, but with themselves in particular, and where they could receive guidance in all civic relations and become well acquainted with their country's need in all directions, whilst their daily life and love of country are nourished by national speech and historical information, by mutual intercourse with one another, and by the lively songs, which are heard through all periods of Denmark's history, and inspire admiration for what is great, warm love for what is beautiful, faithfulness and affection, peace and unity, innocent cheerfulness, pleasure and mirth. In truth, if King Christian VIII., as I gladly hope, opens such a Royal Free School for Life, for popular life in Denmark, he will be able, not merely to smile at the papers when they praise or blame him, but also to rejoice in a popular remedy just as wonderful as our absolute kings; for he has therein opened a well of healing in the land, which will be sought by crowds from

generation to generation and will win this renown, even in distant lands and in far future days, that therein, past counting, blind people received their sight, the deaf their hearing, and the dumb their speech, and that there the halt cast away their crutches and showed clearly that the dance trips it lightly through the wood."

It was evidently Grundtvig's opinion that "divine philosophy," even for working men and women was

Not harsh and crabbed, as dull fools suppose,
But musical as is Apollo's lute."

At the King's desire, he further developed his plans in a letter that bears date February 9th, 1843. In such a school, he says, grown-up young people should "learn to know and to love Fatherland and mother tongue, and have light thrown upon the society of citizens in which they live, as marvellously constituted for the common good, wherein all conditions can be alike honourable and joyous, if people remember their dependence upon one another, and learn from experience that true human development and enjoyment of our powers as rational creatures can be united with all conditions and accomplished in them all." The teachers he desired were—(1) one who was a master in the mother tongue, not merely as found in books, but as spoken by the people, and could help his pupils to understand what they hear, to think in an orderly way, and speak clearly and fluently of what they think and know; (2) one who knew and loved his country's history, and could tell it in lively fashion; (3) one who knew and loved the popular songs, both in old and newer form, and could either lead the singing or get someone to do it; (4) one who could give an orderly account of his country's condition, its business activities and sources of wealth; and (5) it was also desirable some expert should give the

pupils a true and living representation of the national constitution and laws.

He also suggested, with a view to pupils a little more advanced, the benefit of some knowledge of languages, mathematics, natural science and history of the world. And, "above all, some acquaintance with popular literature, especially the poetry and history of one's own country, will create a brand-new world of readers all over the land." But "all is not for all," he adds, "and book-reading not even for professional men, still less for the whole people, can be the principal thing, if every one is to be capable at his own work and fill his place in society, and life's varying daily tasks are to be executed with zest and industry."

Grundtvig's pupils were wont to sum up his teaching in three brief sentences:—Spirit is might; Spirit reveals itself in speech; Spirit works only in freedom. There is often a great difference between the sketch of a plan and its execution, and a still greater between the first sketch and its development in the course of an activity extending through two generations. It is a great tribute to Grundtvig's sagacity that, whilst no high school is in all details exactly like another, each still bears stamped upon it his own clear, sharp impress.

At Sorø, in the middle of Zealand, on the site of a former monastery, where Archbishop Absalon, the founder of Copenhagen, is buried, stands a richly-endowed academy, to which the dramatist Ludvig Holberg bequeathed his property. It seemed not unlikely that the King, Christian VIII. (who, many years before, when Statholder in Norway, had subscribed the Norse Constitution of 1814), might accede to Grundtvig's earnest pleadings and turn this academy into a university for the people. Had he done so, Grundtvig must have been

chosen to a leading position on the staff. But there were difficulties in the way; and with the King's death in 1848 all hope of carrying this particular plan into execution receded into the background. Meanwhile Grundtvig was ready to support any and every means of erecting such schools in a humbler and more private way, but with every advantage, as it afterwards turned out, to their freedom, elasticity and wide success.

The opportunity came at last in 1844, at Rödning, in North Schleswig, where the magistrates and officials spoke German, and the population at large spoke Danish. It was to help these Danish-minded folk that Christian Flor, who was professor of Danish at the University of Kiel, with other friends, established the school at Rödning. And Flor himself, to fill a vacancy in 1846, directed the school for two years; and when it had to move, after the war of 1864, to Askov, north of the new border, he helped more than once to adapt and extend the buildings there, which were humble enough in their first beginnings. It is in memory of this varied help that the words *Flors Højskole* may still be read over the chief doorway.

Askov is in "a very real sense an *alma mater*, not only to the other high schools in Denmark, but to those in other lands. Every winter it can boast students from the sister countries as well as from Finland, Iceland, the Färoes or the United States. This is due to the fact that in 1878 a second-year course for men (and in 1885 for women) was added to the first-year course. And this necessitated both a larger and more efficient staff than was previously required. The school has since been known as the *Extended High School* at Askov. For forty-three years (two of them at Rödning) Ludvig Schröder has guided its fortunes; and it is on his life of Grundtvig

(1901) and Nordiske Folkehøjskole (1905) that all accounts of the movement must largely draw.¹

Next comes Kristen Kold (1816—1870), who must, as much as possible, be described in his own words. He was the son of a poor shoemaker in North Jutland; and, as his fingers were not nimble enough for his father's work, and as, too, he was successful in gaining the good-will of his first pupils (some of them taller than himself), he became a schoolmaster. At the seminary he made little progress until, to use his own words, Peder Larsen (a well-known lay-preacher) "made me see that our Lord loves mankind, and it was frightful I had not managed to learn that all the years of my life. . . . I had never seen the like to the life, the zest, the strength and energy that sprang up in me," and henceforth made all lessons easy. "Fresh life, fresh light!" became his watchword, first for himself and then for others. Ingemann's historical romances at the same time awakened a rare patriotism in him. A year or two after leaving the seminary, he became a house-teacher in Schleswig, and there one of his pupils almost cried her eyes out because she could not learn the long answers in the Catechism. So, he remembered, it had been with himself as a child. And he asked himself, "Can it really be God's will that children be thus tortured with learning by rote?" So, putting the Catechism aside, he talked its contents to the children, and was overjoyed to find how easily they could understand and remember what he told them. But his methods were regarded as an unwarrantable interference with established usage, and he came into collision with archdeacon, bishop and department. Everyone fought shy of him, and any public

1. In May 1906 Professor Schröder resigned his office as principal whilst still continuing his work as chief teacher and chairman of the board of management. He is succeeded as principal by his son-in-law Mr. Jacob Appel.

employment became impossible. So he spent the next five years of his life in Smyrna, helping a Danish missionary there in his spare time, and supporting himself by book-binding. He was home again in 1847, with thoughts of settling in America. But next spring the war about Schleswig-Holstein broke out, with such an outburst of national feeling as had never been seen before. He offered himself as a recruit; but the fingers that were good enough for bookbinding, at which he could take his own time, were not good enough for musket drill. The movements "always came half a second too late." His work plainly lay elsewhere. But his few weeks' service had not been in vain. The spirit of enthusiasm which he had often seen communicated by one individual to another could, as he now perceived, be spread to large numbers of his fellow countrymen. And it now became the object of his life to spread such a spirit, not here and there only, but amongst masses of his countrymen.

In engaging himself as house-tutor in the family of a well-known sympathetic clergyman (Vilhelm Birkedal) in the centre of Fünen, he stipulated that in addition to his pupils in chief he should be allowed to receive three or four peasants by way of experiment. The experiment was so far successful as to justify a repetition on a larger scale. Out of his modest savings, more than doubled by gifts from Grundtvig¹ and his friends, he built a house large enough for twenty pupils. In the course of

¹ In the interview he had with Grundtvig on this occasion there was a sharp discussion as to the best age for the pupils. Kold wanted to have them immediately on their leaving school, at fourteen, fifteen or sixteen (as in the Norse Amtsskoler 25 years later). Grundtvig demurred, holding that the work they both had in view required an age of 18 years at least. Kold held his ground, perhaps supposing that his experience in such a matter went further than Grundtvig's. But in his next batch of pupils, some were over 18 and others under; and his varying experiences with them taught him that Grundtvig was right. There are, however, in Denmark many evening continuation schools for such as are hardly ripe for a high school.

the year 1851 he issued his proposals for a "Higher Folkeskole in Ryslinge," and offered instruction, mostly of an oral character, in the history of the world, in Scripture history, northern mythology and history of Denmark and geography, along with readings in Danish literature, practice in singing, especially the old ballads, and some recapitulation of the subjects they had learned at school, which were now to be taught with greater reference to the needs of daily life. When it is borne in mind that the charge for five months was 20 kr. for instruction and 40 kr. for board and lodging (less than £4 altogether), we shall not be surprised to hear that the pupils had to bring bed-clothes with them. But even these small amounts were grudged. People asked what offices the school would fit them for and whether they would be excused their military service and the like. Just before the school opened on the 1st November, only one pupil could be counted on; but happily there were as many as fifteen on the first day. After two years at Ryslinge, the school removed for nine years to Dalby, in N.E. Fünen, and for the last eight years of Kold's life it was continued with ever-increasing fame at Dalum, near Odense. Here there were a hundred students at a time. Four years before his death, he was at a meeting at Copenhagen of Grundtvig and his friends, and was asked to unfold to the gathering, at any length he chose (an amount of tether never granted to anyone else), the secret of his work of popular enlightenment. And the result was a piece of lively characteristic autobiography, which still remains, notwithstanding many printed reminiscences, our chief source of information. He was a stimulating, inspiring power of the first order, with the readiest command of forcible idiomatic speech and a store of varied illustrations, calculated to arrest the attention of the man in the street and leave

an abiding impression in his memory. He was not only the instructor, but also the friend and comrade, of his pupils. He had remained unmarried until past middle age; and occupying the same sleeping-room as his pupils, he often continued discussions with them until they fell asleep. He lacked the academic training of those who had begun the movement at Rödning seven years before, but was able to carry it among wider masses of the population than they. It seemed at first as though the two streams were not likely to mix; but only at first, for they both acknowledged Grundtvig as their source; and now it is their entire union which has produced the Folkehøjskole of to-day. It was Kold also who made the women's high school a living success. His pupils often asked that they might bring sister or sweetheart with them to lecture; and this led to his instituting a three months' summer course for women at the close of the men's course—a step which eventually doubled the number of high school pupils.

There is one other institution due to Kold. We have seen how he became the determined foe of everything that was merely mechanical in the teaching of children. This was a feeling most of his pupils shared with him. The ordinary school presented such a contrast to the home that it seemed like sending their children to a treadmill to let them go there. And so in the wake of Folkehøjskole for adults grew up the Danish free school for children—a school where their powers might develop under sunniest influences. Once a year pupils must present themselves to the inspecting authority and show that they have reached the same standard as other children of their age. But so long as they do this, the schools are left entirely free in their methods, though they receive both central and local grants. Such schools are especially numerous

in Fünen, and indeed wherever the Folkehöjskole is strong. The two kinds of schools have acted and re-acted on one another to their mutual advantage. The common school has had more life infused into it; the free school has had its range of subjects made more complete. The vivifying influence of the private school, when it has any soul of goodness in it, is one of the salient facts in the history of education in the north of Europe. But Denmark is the only one of the four countries in which this may be said of the elementary schools as well as of the secondary.

When the war of 1864 broke out, there were not more than seven or eight Folkehöjskoler in Denmark. But after the war they sprang up in greater numbers and with added life. They had many difficulties, much ill-will and much misrepresentation to contend against. The pupils, it was said, had their heads filled with useless nonsense, and had in consequence exaggerated ideas of their self-importance. In the eighties, when political feeling ran high, the schools were accused of being hot-beds of political agitation. But after the State inspector (Dr. M. Steenstrup), himself a conservative, issued in 1886 a pamphlet of sixty-five pages opposing to these prejudiced views his sixteen years' experience, other views began to prevail; and the State support became much more adequate. It is strange that when the amount of the grant was doubled at one stroke in 1892, the State control was not increased at the same time, for the Minister of Education, in speaking against a proposed reduction of the grant in 1885, acknowledged that the schools, notwithstanding their great merits, had "many faults and defects," and declared that "the right way to improve them is to do all that can be done to put them somewhat more under State control than they hitherto have been,

to lead them in a juster, less fantastic, more every-day and reasonable direction than many of them have yet followed." But, seven years later, it was acknowledged in Parliament that it was "no use feeding the birds if at the same time you tied them up with a string."

According to the returns published in 1905 there were in the previous year 66 Folkehøjskoler in receipt of State support. To these must be added three other recognised schools, which had sent no returns that year, and several others on the way to recognition. These Folkehøjskoler are of two kinds, according as they do or do not unite with the main instruction an amount of technical work that varies indefinitely from school to school. From the very first it had been the custom at some schools to offer some technical training as a side subject in the school. The two commonest subjects have been agriculture and building construction. It is a moot point amongst high school teachers whether such union is wise. Mr. Alfred Povlsen, of Ryslinge, who has tried both ways, each for seven years, declares for the high school pure and simple. "If we are to exercise influence on a man's character," he says, "we require, first and foremost, stillness and quiet in the mind. Wherever there is bustle, the spoken word loses its power. But the technical school naturally brings bustle with it, and leaves the high school only the hours of rest. And therewith the latter is not content. It must have the whole attention if it is to exercise its full effect." But there is no authority that strives to force the schools in one direction or the other. Each school is left free to develop itself in its own way. But the fact that 38 out of the 66 schools are pure high schools shows that the balance of opinion goes with Mr. Povlsen.

Some of the leaders of these technical departments have given a wider scope to their instruction by founding

schools entirely technical upon the same lines and in the same spirit as the high schools, so that the late Captain J. C. La Cour was wont to say: "The Danish agricultural school is the child of the Danish Folkehøjskole, and must, like this, have Christian faith and national life for its basis." And there are now thirteen of these schools entirely technical (twelve agricultural and one horticultural) that have sprung mainly out of the high schools and are carried on upon the same lines. The close union between the two kinds of school has had the happiest effect. Nearly one-half of the students at these thirteen schools (484 out of 1,054) have previously had a winter at an ordinary high school. And it has been found, with regard to these, that the rousing influence of the high school has produced a receptivity of spirit which leads to a more thorough appropriation and a more independent application of what they have learnt in the agricultural school. So much so, that the principal of one of these schools, reviewing in 1890 his work for the previous nineteen years, makes the recommendation that "all the young men who intend to avail themselves of the instruction in an agricultural school should stay at least one winter at a high school." Ladelund, Dalum and Tune are the largest of the agricultural schools; and some of their dairy methods have had results far outside Denmark and her sister lands. It was the principal at Ladelund, who was formerly on the staff at Askov high school, that trained the first Control Assistants;¹ and both Ladelund and the rest have had a powerful influence the last twenty-five years in spreading the co-operative dairy over the land.

1. There are in Denmark nearly 200 Control Unions which engage for the use of their members a trained assistant to help in the oversight of their herds. It is with his assistance that tables are drawn up showing the fat-content of each cow's milk and the cost of the food for each pound of butter yielded. These particulars enable the farmer to weed out his herd, and to select the best stocks to breed from.

The latest of these thirteen schools, opened in 1903 at Ringsted, in the centre of Zealand, differs somewhat in aim from the rest, being a school intended mainly for the cottars who are so numerous in Denmark. It is a school of minor husbandry, where instruction, both theoretical and practical, is given in making the best use of holdings of five, eight or twelve acres. The conditions of admission are somewhat easier than usual in this school, and the bursaries for pupils of small means somewhat larger, so as to secure as large an attendance as possible. Provision has been made for the erection of a corresponding school in the centre of Jutland.

All these 69 Folkehøjskoler and 13 agricultural schools are members of a Union formed in 1891, which has a general meeting once every three years. This meeting, held at one of the schools whilst the students are away, lasts over three days and has had a great influence in developing the schools and in formulating the proposals for any additional legislation that may be needed.

From the last published return it appears that in 1903-04 there were 3,151 men and 3,186 women at the high schools and 1,054 men and 7 women at the agricultural schools. The largest of the high schools (Vallekilde), since its beginning in 1865, has had an aggregate attendance of 11,416 pupils. The entire number that has passed through these various schools can scarcely fall short of 150,000—a number, Professor La Cour calculates, that amounts to 16 per cent. of the men and women between 20 to 50 years of age engaged in agriculture in Denmark.

Such results could not have been obtained unless the schools had been ordered in such a simple inexpensive way that the charges could be defrayed by men and women of modest resources. Most of the schools conform to the scale of fees fixed by the Union of High Schools and

Agricultural Schools. The men pay for board and lodging for the five winter months 20 kr. a month; and for instruction 20 kr. for the first month, 15 kr. for the second, 10 kr. for the third, 5 kr. for the fourth, and nothing for the fifth, or 150 kr. altogether. The necessary books and appliances may cost other 10 kr.; and in some schools each pupil pays 2 kr. to provide for the expenses of any cases of illness. This brings the total to 162 kr., or about £9 for the five months. The corresponding expenses for the three months' course of the women are 102 kr. (a little under £6). Askov, with its wider courses and fuller staff, has charges about 25 per cent. higher than these.

These fees are somewhat lower than they would be, in consequence of the Government grants to the schools; but, low as they are, they would be beyond the means of many of the students were it not for the still larger grants made by the State through the County Councils to students of limited means. The relation of the State to the schools is fixed by the law of 1902. A school that seeks public support must, after investigation by the department, appear as approved in the annual budget. And before a school can be approved, it must have been working at least two years and must have had, both those years, at least 10 twelve-months' pupils (or 20 six-months', or 40 three-months', as the case may be). No pupil may be under 16 years, and only one-fourth of the men pupils may be between 16 and 18.

The State expenditure on these schools consists chiefly—
(a) of grants to the schools themselves, and (b) of bursaries to the pupils that need help. Before 1892 the amounts for these objects were only 50,000 kr. and 90,000 kr. respectively (18 kroner = £1). For the next ten years they were more than doubled (120,000 kr. and

180,000 kr.). And in the new law of 1902 they were again increased, in consequence of the great rise in the number of pupils, to 140,000 kr. and 250,000 kr., in addition to which 10,000 kr. was contributed to a pension fund, and 8,000 kr. for the expense of inspection (less than £23,000 altogether). A grant of 500 kr. is given every year to each school, and a second grant that corresponds to the usual working expenses of the school during the past year in salaries, equipment, repairs and interest on capital. This second grant amounts to a sum not far short of one-third of the total expenses in these directions. But if, in the interval between one law and another, the number of schools seeking help much increases, this latter grant may fall considerably below one-third. With regard to bursaries, the State allows 20 kr. per month to not more than half the number of pupils in any year, if the fixed sum allowed for that purpose will go so far. It is the State that provides the bursaries, but the Education Committee of the County Council which receives the applications and makes the decision.

The Government returns in 1905 show with great fullness what classes of the population are eager to obtain these bursaries. In 1903-04, 1,172 men (at Folkehöjskoler 5 months) received 114,065 kr.; 1,472 women (at Folkehöjskoler 3 months) received 90,156 kr.; 257 men and 1 woman (at Agricultural schools, 5½ months) received 34,734 kr.; in all, 2,902 pupils received 238,955 kr. (£13,275).

There are two things to be noted here before we pass on : (1) There are actually more women than men in attendance at the Folkehöjskoler, the full number being in 1903-04 3,151 men and 3,186 women. On the other hand, the men stay five months at school and the women cannot stay more than three. And (2) the movement has not yet

reached its full development, for there were bursaries for only one-half of the men applicants and only two-thirds of the women.

With regard to the occupations of the bursary holders, 512 out of 1,172 men were in service (for the most part upon farms), 381 were artizan journeymen or apprentices, and 100 were still at home with their parents. And of the 1,472 women bursary holders, 1,088 were in service, and 219 were still living at home. Of the 257 men who obtained bursaries for the agricultural school, 159 were in service.

Of the 2,092 bursary holders, men and women, 1,134 were sons or daughters of cottars, 604 of farmers, 414 of labourers, and 317 of artizans; 2,417, or 83 per cent., were between 18 and 25. Only 192 came from towns. Nor is the proportion from towns any larger among the non-aided pupils. For out of the entire number of 7,398 pupils in 1904 the towns furnished only 419. It would be wrong to suppose from this that the Danish Folkehöjskole is especially designed for workers on the land or for any one class of the population. It is a school of general civic development. And so Professor Schröder finds in these last figures a "problem which we must desire to solve better and better as time goes on, if the new Danish school for youth is to have the good fortune to blend the various classes of the people into one."

In these ways and to this extent has the humble man become a "partner in the best happiness in the world." Such an effect must produce other effects also, and amongst them may be mentioned—(a) a greater productiveness of industry; (b) progress in religious freedom; (c) a wider and deeper interest in the government of the country.

(a) Co-operation began in England earlier than in Denmark, but in the latter country it has had a more striking

success. A correspondent, who was formerly a high-school pupil, thinks the success is due to the confidence which the Danes feel in each other's words and doings; and he adds, "I do believe that the high schools have been real hot-beds for the seeds from which this has developed. This development of the character of (I trust) the greater part of the population is the finest result of the work of the high schools, and it forms really the basis for the whole future development of the nation." And this co-operation is especially active in the field of agriculture. Agricultural societies, societies for the breeding of horses, cattle or poultry, for the purchase and sale of farm products and for the control of dairy herds are spread all over the land. But it is in the production of butter that the most wonderful effects of co-operation are seen. It was imperative that, if agriculture in Denmark in the seventies was to regain its prosperity, less attention should be paid to corn-growing and more to the raising of stock and to dairy produce. In 1880 and the succeeding years came a further change. The agricultural population changed as with one accord to co-operative methods in making butter and cheese. If the reason of this promptness be sought, it will perhaps be best to give it in the words of Professor Povl La Cour to the Agricultural Congress at Stockholm in 1897: "The resoluteness and capacity with which Danish farmers passed over from making a quantity of poor butter on the smaller farms and holdings up and down the country to the manufacture in co-operative dairies of a butter of almost uniform fineness is no doubt a consequence of their having had expert leaders like the late N. J. Fjord, without whom no progress could have been made. But," he adds, "the question remains how a great agricultural population in so short a time could be induced to follow directions and carry the matter

through.”¹ In order to answer the question statistically, he sent out schedules along with one of the issues of a leading dairy journal to 970 co-operative dairies and 260 butter factories (following the same methods as the first, but not on co-operative lines). Though, unfortunately, he received answers from only 436 of these, which employed altogether 436 managers, 723 dairymen, and 470 dairywomen, the result was sufficient to give a picture of the situation. He found that, of the managers, 47 per cent. had been at a high school, 24 per cent. at an agricultural school, 62 per cent. at a dairy school, and generally 90 per cent. had been at one or more of such schools as we saw were included in the Union of High Schools and Agricultural Schools. The corresponding percentages for men helpers were 18, 2, 11, 28; and of women helpers, 29, 0, 2, 30. He concludes: “Just as an enrichment of the soil gives the best conditions for the seeds sown in it, so a well-grounded humanistic training provides the surest basis for business capacity, and not the least so in the case of the coming farmer.”

A similar account is to be given of the 28 co-operative bacon factories, which began seven or eight years after the dairies, and of the Co-operative Egg Export Society, with its 400 affiliated societies.²

It would not be easy to exhaust the significance or exaggerate the importance of these facts. In 1881, just before the co-operative dairies began, the net export from Denmark of bacon, butter and eggs was valued at £2,402,000; but in 1904 the value had reached £13,614,000 — about half that of the entire exports. The leading

1. *Mælkeritidende* (Odense) No. 31, 6 Aug., 1897, p. 511.

2. The fullest particulars of these movements are to be found in a Report issued by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland in 1903 on Co-operative Agriculture and Rural Conditions in Denmark.

factors in this rapid increase have been a state of the land laws producing peasant proprietorship and the existence of a suitable form of education for adults. Under such conditions the rural exodus in Denmark has been much less serious than in other countries. The country village with its lecture hall, gymnasium and one or more co-operative undertakings, has interests and occupations of its own, such as the town often lacks. Perhaps no more striking instance could be adduced of education spelling prosperity. It has not, however, been a code-controlled and inspector-guided education, but one which has been so free and elastic in its methods that there has been fullest room for character and enthusiasm, sometimes approaching to genius, to develop themselves and awaken in hearers and beholders a fitting response that has been all important for their after life.

It is almost a shock to our English prepossessions to learn that these high schools are entirely private. In Denmark they are nearly always the property of a single individual. But it is a happy sign that of late years there has been a constant stream to them of English visitors. For, along with many secondary schools in the four countries of the North, they are calculated to raise in public estimation an educational instrument which is even more English than Danish, to show its indispensable position and true function in a public system, and to suggest in great variety ways and means of dealing with it, which will reduce its defects to a minimum and draw from it the maximum of public service.

(b) In the wake of the Folkehøjskoler has gone a Free Kirk movement, whose influence is not to be measured by its extent. So long as the appointments of parish ministers are made by a Government department, it will happen sometimes that they are unacceptable to the

parishioners. Some cases of this kind were met by a new law passed in 1868, which enables twenty heads of families in a parish, so long as they are able and willing to provide the necessary means, to erect their own church, and out of the number of those qualified to serve in the national church to choose their own clergyman. And as such an appointment is ratified by the King, they still retain their place within the national church. The laws relating to this matter were consolidated in 1903, with the addition that such a community might under fitting regulations use the parish church for its services at such times as it was not used by the ordinary congregation. In such churches laymen take of necessity a much more active part than usual; and fresh developments of church activity come into existence. The most striking instance is to be found in the Valgmenighed Church in Copenhagen. Not long ago the church stood alone. Now, with its associated buildings, it surrounds three sides of a square open towards the street on the west. At right angles to the church and joined to it by an arch is a spacious gymnasium with a church hall over it on the first floor. At the corner of the gymnasium nearest the church is a handsome campanile. Further on in the same line is a four-storey building, the ground-floor of which is devoted to an evening continuation school for young men. This school differs from others of a like kind by the attempt made to put a high-school impress upon all the work done, *i.e.*, quite as much stress is laid upon the promotion of all friendly influences as on the extent of the acquirements that may there be made. The upper floors are devoted to the High School Union and the High School Home which constitute respectively a simple, inexpensive club for 600 young men and women in the neighbourhood and a modest hotel for high school people from

the country and their friends. The two institutions are, in fact, a continuation of the work which the late Folketingsmand Harald Holm and his wife conducted for thirty years with such spirit in Helgolandsgade.¹ Of such high school homes there are more than thirty to be found scattered over Denmark.² As some are erected by unions or committees, and others by individuals, there are wide differences in the extent and kind of their accommodation and also of their usefulness.

The building on the third side has its ground floor devoted to continuation classes of a high school character for seventy or eighty young women. On the first floor are the offices where the church business is attended to; on the second is the clergyman's residence; and on the third a school of housekeeping and cookery.

(c) Though the Danish high schools avoid anything like political agitation or party politics, it will be readily understood from the fact that history is their chief subject, that they develop in their pupils a keen sense of public duty. In the new Danish Parliament of 1901 it was found that no less than 30 per cent of the members of the two Houses had passed through such schools as I have been describing.

It was not long before the Danish high school passed to the neighbouring countries, in all of which it has won for itself devoted friends and workers. The high school first made its appearance in Norway in 1864, and was for years somewhat of an exotic. The movement led in 1875 to the establishment of State Amtsskoler as well as high schools proper. An Amtsskole, like the high school, is a

1. See *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. i., p. 598.

2. There is a list of twenty of these to be found year by year in the *Teachers' Guild Holiday Resorts* (74 Gower Street, London, W.C., 1s.).

school in which the whole time of the pupil is given for several months to instruction; but its pupils are younger and it lacks the higher instruction in history and literature, which is the special feature of the high school. The two schools were at first rivals, but now exist peacefully side by side. And it is often found that the Folkehögskole pupil becomes the most successful director of the Amtsskole. In 1900 there were 634 pupils in the high schools, and 1,717 in the Amtsskoler.

In Sweden the movement began in 1868, and has gone on since with uninterrupted success. There are 30 schools at work; and it is calculated that there have been 31,480 pupils in them—19,177 one-year men pupils, 3,552 two-year men pupils (the second year is devoted almost entirely to technical subjects such as farming and forestry), and 8,751 women pupils. Since 1900 the Riksdag has granted 120,000 kr. a year to these schools and 25,000 kr. in bursaries for students in need of help.¹

It was in 1889 that Sofia Hagman began the first People's High School in Finland; and there are now 16 in which Finnish is the language of instruction and 7 for Swedish-speaking students. Inasmuch as each of them also gives instruction in agriculture and domestic economy, the State gives a grant to each school of 2-3,000 mrks. They are all co-education schools. In 1897 there were 560 pupils at the Finnish, and 165 at the Swedish, schools.

There have been five general meetings of the teachers and friends of the high schools in the North. The first

1. Dr. J. V. Jonsson has written in English a brief account of "The People's High Schools in Sweden" (Örebro, 1904, pp. 30). There is a copy of this in the British Museum. The largest of the schools is in the extreme south of Sweden, at Hvilan, near Åkarp, halfway between Lund and Malmö; and can easily be reached from Copenhagen. Dr. Leonard Holmström has been its principal since its foundation in 1868.

was held, in 1883, at Testrup, in Jutland; at the last but one, which was held in 1900 at Seljord in Norway, there were present more than 250 persons from the four countries.

It is more than twenty-five years since the first People's High School was begun amongst Danish colonists in the United States; and there are still three at work—Nysted, in Nebraska; Danebod, near the southern boundary of Minnesota; and Des Moines, in Iowa.

J. S. THORNTON.

Reference may be made to the following accounts of the People's High Schools in Denmark :—

Alfred Povlsen. The Danish Popular High School, in the *Oxford University Extension Gazette*, September 1904.

J. S. Thornton. Recent Educational Progress in Denmark, in *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. i. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode, 1897.

Schools Public and Private in the North of Europe. *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, vol. xvii. London: Wyman & Sons, 1907.

T. S. Dymond. *Report on the Visit of the Essex Farmers' Party to Denmark*. Chelmsford, 1900.

L. Schröder. *Den Nordiske Folkhøjskole*. Copenhagen, 1905.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Compulsory Attendance at Continuation Schools in Germany.¹

I.

THE German Empire comprises twenty-five states and the Reichsland of Alsace-Lorraine. In twenty-one out of these twenty-six constituent parts of the Empire, attendance at continuation schools is now compulsory for the whole or part of the younger population during a period of time (which varies in length in different districts) immediately following the conclusion of the elementary day school course. The five states in which attendance at continuation schools still remains wholly voluntary contain only one-forty-sixth part of the population of the empire. Broadly speaking, Germany has within the last thirty years declared herself decisively in favour of extending the educational care of the community over the individual during the critical years of adolescence. The idea of collective responsibility for individual welfare has grown in power. Step by step the authority of the State has advanced. The principle of compulsion has been pushed beyond the somewhat narrow limits of the elementary school (6—14) into the period of adolescence, during which (as is justly con-

1. I desire to acknowledge the valuable help which I have received, in collecting materials and statistics for this chapter, from Mr. G. Huth of Breslau, from the late Dr. Otto Beyer of Leipzig, from Mr. B. Lasker of the Manchester Art Museum and University Settlement, and from Mr. A. E. Twentyman, Librarian of the Board of Education, whose knowledge of educational work in Germany is of a kind to which few other Englishmen could make claim. But for the views expressed the responsibility is mine alone.—M. E. S.

tended) there is no less need of educational direction and care. In bringing about this extension of the compulsory principle economic interests have combined with moral considerations. The view that technical training following upon a good general education has become indispensable to the industrial and commercial success of a nation commands the unreserved assent of the German people. In no other country is this principle more consistently applied. And therefore as soon as it was realised that modern conditions of industry and commerce threatened to deprive young people of the educational care which was formerly provided through apprenticeship, the idea of compulsory attendance at suitable continuation schools rapidly grew in favour among the workpeople and, though more slowly, among the mass of employers also. But it was not to economic interests alone that the growth of this opinion was due. Moral considerations supported it. Fears were felt that the moral welfare of the nation would suffer if no measures were taken to counteract the deteriorating influences of town and city life during the first years of a youth's freedom from the discipline of day-school life. The idea of extending the principle of compulsion was not uncongenial to the habit of mind induced by familiarity with the enforcement of discipline by the State through compulsory military service. Nor was there practical difficulty in enabling the local education authorities to keep themselves informed of the whereabouts of all the young people who had already passed through the elementary schools. For reasons of military organisation, the administrative machinery, necessary for the supervision of every male adult member of the community, was ready to hand. And obedience to constituted authority was habitual in all classes. The foundation of the system lies in the fact that in Germany the individual citizen is made

to feel, in a way unknown in England, his personal duty towards the organised State. ..

That there is a bad, as well as a good side to this form of national organisation will be admitted, even by those who heartily endorse the German system. But the latter contend that discipline enforced by authority is necessary to the strength, and perhaps to the existence, of the nation. And it is further argued that within the framework of sternly enforced national organisation there is secured for the individual a measure of economic and moral freedom which is denied to many of the victims of competition in a more individualistic society. In any case, the observer can but record the fact that the principle of compulsory attendance at continuation schools, which is but the logical development of compulsory attendance at the elementary school, meets with the approval of the great majority of the German people.

The extent to which this compulsory attendance is required varies in different parts of the Empire. In nine States (including the greater part of Prussia¹) and in Alsace-Lorraine attendance is compulsory only in those towns or districts where it is imposed by local bye-law.¹ In eleven states, attendance is compulsory by State law but for periods varying in different localities. In five States attendance at continuation schools is still voluntary, but in one of these (Bremen) it will become compulsory in April 1908.

Attendance at continuation schools is compulsory where required by local byelaw in the following States. The practice of requiring it has become increasingly frequent in urban districts during recent years.

1. In the Prussian provinces of Posen and West Prussia attendance is compulsory by State law. The population of Posen in 1900 was 1,887,275; that of West Prussia, 1,563,658.

State.	Population, Dec. 1, 1900.
Prussia (excluding Posen and West Prussia where attendance is compulsory by State law)	31,021,576
Saxe Altenburg	194,914
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	229,550
Anhalt	316,085
Brunswick	464,333
Oldenburg	399,180
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	102,602
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	93,059
Lippe	138,952
Alsace-Lorraine	1,719,470

A minimum period of attendance at continuation schools is compulsory by State Law in the following:—

State.	Population, Dec. 1, 1900.
Bavaria	6,176,057
Saxony	4,202,216
Württemberg	2,169,480
Baden	1,867,944
Hesse	1,119,893
Saxe Weimar	362,873
Saxe Meiningen	250,731
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	607,770
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	80,898
Waldeck	57,918
Reuss, Junior Branch	139,210

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In the following, attendance at continuation schools is still voluntary :—

State.	Population, Dec. 1, 1900.
Hamburg	768,349
Bremen ¹	224,882
Lübeck	96,775
Reuss, Elder Branch	68,396
Schaumburg-Lippe	43,132

Attendance at continuation schools is compulsory for girls as well as for boys in Bavaria, Württemberg, Saxe-Meiningen, Waldeck and in some parts of Prussia. In all other cases compulsion applies to boys only.

The work of the continuation schools for boys is increasingly of a technical character, and bears directly upon the industrial occupations of the pupils. By the Imperial Industrial Law of June 1, 1891 (as amended June 30, 1900) employers of labour are obliged to grant to their apprentices or other workers (including all male persons, and female clerks and female apprentices) who are under 18 years of age the necessary time for such attendance at continuation classes as is required by the local authority of the district.

The arrangement of continuation classes in the day time is rapidly becoming general where the exigencies of the trade allow. The Decree of the Minister of Industry and Commerce (of August 20, 1904) sternly discourages continuation classes on Sunday and the practice of requiring attendance at any time after 8 p.m. on a week day. Classes are only permitted on Sundays (when allowed at all on that day) at hours which do not interfere with attendance at Divine Service.

1. Attendance to be compulsory from April 1, 1908.

The movement for compulsory attendance at continuation schools is by no means exclusively confined to the towns. But, as might be expected, it is in industrial and commercial centres that the recent developments have been most striking. The organisation of continuation schools effected in the City of Munich by Stadtschulrat Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner (whose writings on the subject have had widespread influence in Germany and elsewhere) calls for special mention as combining in an exceptionally high degree care for artistic and technical training with regard for liberal culture and for the duties of citizenship.

II.

The following tables, which have been prepared by Mr. G. Huth of Breslau, show the conditions of attendance at continuation schools in the different parts of the German Empire and give the statistics of schools and attendance.

II.—STATISTICS OF CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

STATE.	Population Dec. 1, 1900.	General Continuation Schools.		Trade & Industrial Continuation Schools.		Technical (Fach) Schools.		Commercial Schools.		Agriculture Schools.		General Continuation Schools for Girls.		Girls' Schools, Technical (Fach) Schools for Girls.	
		No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.
Prussia	34,472,509	1	5,000	1,330	180,000	132	15,625	310	40,000	1,863	56,780	43	9,078	178	15,392
Bavaria	6,176,057	85	7,340	426	53,299	62	10,653	39	4,024	485	8,675	38	6,988	28	1,589
Saxony	4,202,216	2,150	83,590	45	14,860	118	12,916	48	6,420	15	1,230	13	1,978	22	2,870
Württemberg	2,169,480	2,156	34,176	175	17,890	8	1,289	18	2,763	26	489	2,160	53,087	42	3,570
												included in the			
Baden	1,867,944	1,780	28,960	132	10,550	18	1,670	25	1,965	28	780	1,780	18,916	164	7,650
Hesse	1,119,893	945	27,850	89	9,322	8	854	9	965	15	457	4	282	6	284
Saxe-Weimar	362,873	498	8,756	17	2,380	12	678	10	468	2	90	2	49	—	—
Saxe-Meiningen	250,731	335	5,459	—	—	5	145	7	268	—	—	25	219	3	64
Saxe-Altenburg	194,914	22	1,520	2	290	1	180	3	125	1	49	—	—	—	—
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	229,550	241	5,652	5	780	5	395	1	120	2	36	1	7	4	120
Anhalt	316,085	—	—	29	4,676	6	309	3	210	1	30	1	—	1	125
Brunswick	404,333	—	—	18	2,839	3	297	14	1,140	2	268	1	159	4	240
Oldenburg	399,180	—	—	28	2,692	5	345	5	412	8	336	—	—	—	—
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	607,770	—	—	52	4,558	4	489	8	356	3	68	—	—	—	—
Mecklenburg-Strelitz.	102,602	—	—	14	1,020	3	940	3	74	4	56	—	—	—	—
Schwarzburg- Rudolstadt	93,059	22	856	5	250	4	936	1	26	—	—	3	86	2	60
Schwarzburg- Sondershausen	80,898	105	1,658	7	369	2	120	3	136	—	—	—	—	6	172
Waldeck	57,918	135	1,460	1	45	4	324	—	—	4	148	—	—	—	—
Reuss, Junior Branch.	139,210	4	326	7	1,250	10	1,154	2	226	1	158	1	286	2	35
Reuss, Elder Branch.	68,396	—	—	1	456	1	32	1	95	—	—	—	—	—	—
Schaumburg-Lippe	43,132	2	112	1	30	—	—	—	—	1	30	—	—	—	—
Lippe	138,952	—	—	16	1,460	2	180	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hamburg	768,349	1	1,896	15	6,780	21	1,715	10	1,890	—	—	1	95	12	1,267
Lübeck	96,775	1	35	1	1,250	4	235	1	268	1	69	—	—	4	167
Bremen	224,832	—	—	6	2,167	5	863	3	1,150	1	58	1	680	1	640
Alsace-Lorraine	1,719,450	49	1,520	25	2,686	6	814	3	695	14	628	4	336	6	350

III.

The German continuation school is not a modern creation. It springs from an old root. It has developed from the Sunday school. In certain parts of Germany such Sunday continuation schools have existed for several centuries. In one diocese in the Baltic district they date back as far as 1569. Originally their main purpose was to strengthen and deepen the religious knowledge of the children; and the instruction in the Church Catechism, which was given after the pupils had left the elementary school, was regarded as the first step towards this end. The first German States to make attendance at these schools compulsory on young people of both sexes were Württemberg (in 1739) and Bavaria (in 1803). In Bavaria, a young man could not marry unless he first produced a certificate that he had gone through the course at a Sunday school. Up to their sixteenth year (sometimes till their eighteenth or twentieth year, or even until marriage) the young people received, from the clergyman or schoolmaster, on Sunday afternoons, instruction in religious knowledge, and in reading and writing. Sometimes, too, these Sunday schools replaced the regular elementary schools for those children who were prevented by domestic duties from attending school on week-days. The regulations for compulsory attendance, however, were never strictly enforced; indeed such enforcement was out of the question owing to the lack of teachers and school accommodation. The results were poor, as was only to be expected from the miserable educational conditions then prevailing.

It was in the Kingdom of Saxony that the modern development of the continuation school began. The growing industrial power of England was watched from afar. "We have all looked on idly while England gathered strength;

she now enjoys the fruits of her labours. . . . Nothing remains for us but to win these fruits, and nothing can stop us as soon as we have learnt to sow the seed and reap the harvest. This seed is nothing more than the preparation of knowledge, and this we must scatter with no sparing hand."¹ These were the words of a Bavarian advocate of technical instruction in 1829. And the same vigorous spirit of commercial and industrial emulation moved men in Saxony also.

There sprang up a vigorous movement on the part of the town councils and trade associations for the establishment of continuation schools, and in 1835 the local authorities in Saxony were given statutory power to enforce attendance at such schools. But in the fifties the current of feeling changed. Elementary education was now universal. There were many who held that the work of the continuation schools had therefore become unnecessary. And the air was charged with the theories of individualism, which were supposed to explain British initiative and success. Compulsory attendance went for a time out of fashion. In 1859 the power of enforcing attendance at continuation schools was withdrawn from the local authorities in Saxony, as had already been the case elsewhere. The attendance at the schools and (individualistic theories notwithstanding) their efficiency declined. Many years later, a resident in a neighbouring State reminded his hearers of what had happened. "In Weimar, in 1850, we had a continuation school which was largely attended, and the source of great benefit to the town. . . . Then came the new law, and compulsory attendance was abolished. Our school died. No one attended any longer, because all our young men

1. "Kunst-und Gewerbe Blatt. München," 1829, p. 507. Quoted by A. E. Twentyman in article on "The Earlier History of Technical High Schools in Germany," in "Special Reports on Educational Subjects," vol. ix. p. 467.

thought they had learnt quite enough. Then the council formulated another decree. They could not compel, but they decided to urge, the young men of 14 to 18 years of age to help in re-establishing the school. The appeal was backed by cogent arguments. But what was the result? There reported himself for the first-class, one student; for the second-class, one more. Two scholars in all."¹

But the tide soon turned. The new spirit of collective action asserted itself in Germany. Complaints of the defective training of the younger workers in industry, in commerce and in agriculture took the ear of the public. In 1867 when universal suffrage was introduced and the sphere of work of educational authorities was extended, it was felt on all sides that the masses must be educated for their civic duties and that to this end the period of education must be extended beyond the fourteenth year.

A decisive step was taken two years later. Under the terms of the "Regulation of Industry" of 1869, employers were compelled to allow their workmen under eighteen years of age to attend a recognised continuation school, and the communes were empowered to frame bye-laws making attendance at such schools obligatory on all workmen under eighteen. Continuation schools were established in many places, very frequently through the influence of the "Society for the Extension of Popular Education," which was founded about this time. A vigorous propaganda in favour of continuation schools was made in the great towns and public opinion was stirred. Then followed the great events of 1870-71. The force of national feeling was irresistible. The power of education had been proved in the war. It was felt that the schools had helped to make Germany united and victorious. To go forward along the same road

1. See F. H. Dale's article on "The Continuation Schools of Saxony" in "Special Reports on Educational Subjects," vol. i. p. 484.

was the way to consolidate what had been won and to attain yet further success. The national genius for industrial and commercial organisation asserted itself with double power. Scientific method in research and in the application of research to manufacture was at the disposal of the nation. What remained was to improve the education of the people and to give a practical turn to the training of youths. This pointed towards a great development of technical and commercial continuation schools. A Society for the Extension of National Education was founded. Its work met with quick response. Petitions for continuation schools poured in from all classes. In 1873 Saxony passed a law enforcing attendance at such schools. In the next year, Baden, Saxe Weimar, Hesse and other States followed suit. Prussia allowed compulsion by local bye-law. The new era of continuation schools had begun.

Since that time the movement has gone steadily forward, but never so rapidly as within the last few years.¹ Years of practice and of carefully watched experiments have produced an expert body of trade teachers on a scale unmatched elsewhere. What may be called the science and art of technical instruction have advanced, and the results show themselves in the ease with which town after town can provide itself with the large staff of skilled teachers necessary to the success of any widely extended system of practical continuation schools. But many Germans were quick to see the danger of giving a too exclusively technical character to the new classes. An educational movement which has powerful economic interests behind it is apt to become too narrowly utilitarian

1. In furthering public knowledge of the working of the continuation school system, valuable service was rendered, from 1890 onwards, by the writings of Herr Oskar Pache of Leipzig. The first volume of his "*Handbuch des deutschen Fortbildungsschulwesens*" (Herrosé, Wittenberg), appeared in 1896.

in motive, and to lose that ideal element which gives all education its chief power over character, and alone can command the loyalty and self-devotion of the most inspiring teachers. At the critical moment Dr. Kerschensteiner struck the needed note. In 1900 he happened to see in a newspaper the announcement by the Academy of Erfurt of a prize for an essay upon the best way of training youths for the responsibilities of civic life during the critical years which intervene between the close of their day school course and their military service. He sent in an essay which was crowned by the Academy and won the prize. During the last six years this little book of seventy-eight pages¹ has moved opinion in every part of Germany. Nor is its influence confined to Europe. Much of what is now being done to develop practical continuation schools in New England can be directly traced to Dr. Kerschensteiner's work.

Educational opinion was ready for a new departure. School work and school theories had got too far from the actual tasks of modern industrial life. The tacit implication was that general culture and technical utility were on different planes of value, and that school studies must remain as remote as might be from the vulgarising touch of practical work. The practical duties of life would come soon enough in any case with their exacting claims. Let the schools do what they could to secure even for the humblest some years of shelter from thoughts of wage earning, and a period, however short, of training in the things of the mind. But the theory had been better than the practice. All the time, thousands of elementary school children were working out of school hours early and late. Much of the work of the elementary, like that of the

1. "Staatsbürgerliche Erziehung der deutschen Jugend," von Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner. Erfurt : Carl Villaret, 1901.

higher, schools was (and is) too abstract, too remote from reality, too little related to life. And when the stint of elementary education had been given, the children were (and are) too often allowed to pass out into casually chosen employment, at a critical stage in their moral development, without care or guidance or technical training. And the work of the schools, excellent in itself, admirable in discipline and exemplary in its accurate skill, had done (and still does) little to prepare them for life as they would find it. This was felt, is still felt, by increasing numbers of teachers and by many others who watch with sympathy the painstaking efforts of the schools. Somehow or other things were wrong. One by one, readers of Pestalozzi began to see in his teaching a deeper meaning than they had at first perceived. Men like Professor Natorp threw into new relief the social significance of education, and emphasised the necessity for a closer relationship between education and the realities of life.¹ Professor John Dewey endeavoured, in his experimental school at Chicago, to make it 'an embryonic community life,' active with types of occupation that reflect the life of the larger society, and permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history and science. "When the school," he wrote, "introduces and trains each child of society into membership within such a little community, saturating him with the spirit of service, and providing him with the instruments of effective self-direction, we shall have the deepest and best guarantee of a larger society which is worthy, lovely and harmonious."² In England, Dr. Armstrong, Sir P. Magnus and others contended for practical studies in the elementary and

1. Paul Natorp, "Gesammelte Abhandlungen zur Sozialpädagogik." Stuttgart : Fr. Frommann's Verlag, 1907.

2. "The School and Society," p. 44. Chicago University Press, 1900. (London : P. S. King and Son.)

secondary schools. Dr. Stanley Hall pressed upon the thoughts of all students of education the need for dealing in a new spirit with the complex needs of adolescence. And at the same juncture has come Dr. Kerschensteiner's work, which, on its literary and administrative sides alike, has thrown new light upon the problem of continuation schools, and points towards a synthesis of technical and ethical studies in their course.

These are some of the chief elements in the new influence which is at work in the movement for making the continuation school a more powerful instrument in social education. The forces behind the movement are more complex than at first appears. It is an expression of social tendencies which are still undefined in words even by many of those who feel most strongly the push of the tendencies in their mind and work. To a great extent, perhaps to a undue degree, the desire for technical skill and for increased wage-earning capacity is the motive power to-day in the system of continuation schools of Germany, as in the less perfectly organised systems of other countries including our own. But from a social as well as from an economic point of view, the continuation school is an important factor in national life. It prevents the waste, through neglect, of much that has been learnt in the elementary school. It gives help to self-discipline during the critical years of adolescence. It aims at making every youth realise that increased skill in his trade and deeper knowledge of the scientific principles which underlie it, will not only enable him to hold his own in the economic struggle but will also enhance his personal dignity as a member of the community. Therefore, if the continuation school is to do its complete work, it must afford a training in citizenship as well as impart purely technical skill. In furthering technical instruction, it must not forget the claims of general

education. In order to attain this double purpose, it needs, and has a claim upon, voluntary assistance and public subsidy. Ignorance is the dearest thing in the world, and funds laid out upon the skilful development of industrial and commercial aptitudes and upon the deepening of the sense of personal duty and responsibility towards the community, bring in a large return both as regards material prosperity and national well-being.

IV.

A governing fact in the development of the technical continuation school in Germany is the duty which the law throws upon the employer of giving to his younger workpeople the necessary time for attendance at the continuation classes which the local education authority may prescribe.

This duty is imposed by the following sections in the Imperial Law of Industry of June 1, 1891:—

Sect. 120. Employers of labour are required to grant to those of their employés¹ under 18 years of age who attend a continuation school arranged by the Government or by the local authority the necessary time for school attendance as prescribed by the authority in question. Classes are only allowed on Sundays if they do not interfere with attendance at Divine Service.

Sect. 142. By the bye-law of a district or Town Council attendance at continuation schools can be made compulsory for male persons under 18 years. The regulations necessary to enforce compulsory regular attendance at such schools may be fixed by the local authority, and the duties of pupils, parents, guardians and employers may be so defined as to ensure the regular attendance, the discipline and the orderly behaviour of the pupils. Those pupils are relieved from the attendance at such compulsory schools who attend a guild or "Fach" school, provided that such a school is recognised by the superior administrative authority as equivalent in status to the said continuation school.

Sect. 150. A fine of 20 marks (£1) or, if this is not paid, imprisonment up to three days for every offence, is imposed upon anyone contravening any of the above regulations.

The view taken by the Prussian Government upon the merits of the system of compulsory attendance at continua-

1. By the Industrial Law of 30 June, 1900, Sect. 120 is altered to include the following: male persons, female clerks, female apprentices.

tion schools is illustrated by the following Decree of the Minister of Trade and Commerce, dated Berlin, August 31, 1899.

"There are still some who think that voluntary attendance at industrial continuation schools is preferable to compulsory attendance. I consider it my duty to draw attention to the recognised fact that, according to all experience down to the present time, the continuation school only flourishes and fulfils its purpose if attendance is made compulsory by a local byelaw. The opponents of compulsory attendance maintain that it lowers the standard of the schools. It is contended that the voluntary pupils are willing and ready to learn, whereas those who are compelled to attend are refractory and lazy, and thus impede the progress of the better pupils and make it difficult to maintain school discipline. I admit that among the number of industrial labourers under 18 years of age who are brought to school by compulsory attendance, there may be some undesirables who cannot be brought under school discipline. But this drawback can be obviated by a proper classification of the pupils, especially by rigorously enforcing the grading system and by employing suitable teachers. Moreover, the difficulty can be overcome if, in the initial stage of the compulsory system, those young persons who have been out of school for several years are not admitted. In the earlier stages, the bye-law should only be enforced for the lowest stage of the continuation school and should be extended in operation year by year. Experience shows that attendance at the continuation school will soon be regarded as a matter of course, just as is the case with attendance at the elementary schools. This plan has the further advantage of gradually building up the school stage by stage. This meets another objection, viz., that any sudden increase in the number of pupils would make too great a demand for school places and that the expense of providing them would be beyond the means of most of the communities.

The critics of the compulsory system further maintain that schools with voluntary attendance show better educational results. This statement is certainly wrong, and the tests lately instituted by me prove the contrary. Irregular and unpunctual attendance is a standing complaint with nearly all the schools when attendance is voluntary. In some instances it has happened that schools with voluntary attendance have had to waste half the time appointed for a lesson because sufficient pupils had not arrived to make it possible to begin.

Another drawback connected with voluntary attendance which seriously impairs the success of the teaching is that pupils cannot be got to attend those classes in German and arithmetic which they need in consequence of their defective preparation. They either refuse to attend such a class, or stop away entirely and pretend that they are needed in workshop or office on the days when such lessons are given. The consequence is that even in schools with a large number of pupils it is impossible to grade the classes in suitable forms. It is also inaccurate to say that a continuation school with voluntary attendance offers sufficient opportunity to all diligent young workmen to extend their knowledge. Under the voluntary system, an employer, who is opposed to the increase of educational opportunities, will, in spite of Sect. 120 of the Imperial Law of Industry, which compels him to grant his young men the time necessary for attendance at these schools, find ways and means to retain them. But even supposing that such unlawful means were not used to exclude diligent young men to their great

detriment, the all important purpose of the continuation schools, viz., that of raising the standard of education among the masses, would thereby be disregarded. There cannot be the slightest doubt that most of the young people who leave the elementary school at 14 years of age are neither in knowledge nor in character ripe to go out into life. "With the loosening of the personal ties between master and workman, the danger grows that young people after leaving the elementary school will have to go without any further educative influence. Here the continuation school steps in with its purpose of forming the character of the young and of helping them to resist the temptations which are certain to present themselves to them in so many forms. This purpose can only be attained if the masses of the people, and not only the apprentices of certain favoured industries, are brought under the influence of these schools.

I hereby request you to use every endeavour to introduce compulsory attendance through bye-law wherever this is possible, and with all petitions for State aid either for new schools or for additional aid for existing schools to send in a report stating the result of the negotiations with the local authorities on the subject of introducing the system of compulsory attendance."

The following decree on the subject of holding continuation classes on Sundays or in the later hours of week day evenings was issued by the Minister of Industry and Commerce on August 20, 1904. It lays stress upon the importance of avoiding, so far as possible, the requirement of attendance at evening continuation classes in the case of youths who have had a heavy day's work.

"It is the custom of the continuation schools in most of the smaller towns and in a number of the larger towns to hold the classes in the late evening hours, generally from 8 to 10 p.m. My predecessor has already tried to alter this practice by his decree of February 3, 1900, which says that the lessons should take place during the daytime or close not later than 9 p.m. Quite apart from the fact that this decree has not had the desired effect, my experience has induced me to go even further and to decree that the classes in compulsory continuation schools shall be held during the daytime or close not later than 8 p.m., and that they shall be open on working days only. Objections which have reached me from various quarters lead me to state clearly the principle upon which I take my stand.

The continuation school aims at supplementing practical teaching by such theoretical teaching as will educate the pupils to be capable men and useful members of the community.

In order to fulfil this aim, the school must demand from its pupils much intellectual vigour and hard work in the classes, as the time available is very limited and home lessons are out of the question. It is clear that growing boys, after having worked in the shop from the early hours of the day, will scarcely be able to do justice to such requirements if the classes are held in the late hours of the evening. A continuation school working late will therefore incur the risk of failing to achieve its purpose and will not give an adequate return for the money spent on it. There is also a serious danger of overstraining the young pupils.

There is, further, the danger that after the close of late classes the young men will stroll about the streets and commit excesses to which, as experience has shown, they are inclined. I lay further great stress on the point of keeping Sundays free from any lessons. The Sunday belongs to devotion, to the family, to recreation and to voluntary work, but not to compulsory learning. I have sometimes heard the opinion expressed that the compulsory continuation school has for one of its objects that of preventing young people from making an improper use of their time by imposing on them evening and Sunday lessons. I certainly do not share this view, and expect no good results from merely keeping them out of the streets or public-houses. The life of the working classes can only be lifted to a higher level by improving their spiritual and moral education. It is therefore advisable to bring young men into touch with educated people by providing clubs with reading rooms, by arranging lectures, excursions and outdoor games, by instructing them in the best ways of using their time and by giving them an opportunity of healthy enjoyment. Such arrangements may be connected with the continuation schools but without any compulsion.

It is my firm belief that the changing of the evening classes into day classes, as is now general in the Grand Duchy of Baden, would not hinder but advance industry. This view has been confirmed by experience and by the resolutions of quite a number of leading industrial and commercial corporations, as, for instance, by the Fourth Congress of the Chambers of Industry, by the Elders of the Berlin Union of Merchants, by the German Union of Mercantile Associations, etc. I am ready to meet the difficulties which at present stand in the way of a general adoption of my proposals by granting permission for the drawing lessons still to take place on Sundays, but only in cases where local conditions (e.g., badly-lighted rooms or the crowding of the compulsory classes by the voluntary attendance of pupils from the neighbourhood) make it impossible or very difficult to convert the evening classes into day classes. It is of course understood that the hours of Divine Service and Sunday afternoons are to be kept free in any case. I decline further concessions, and request you to work energetically in conjunction with the Chambers of Trade and Commerce and with the guilds and trade societies, to abolish the compulsory evening and Sunday classes. I shall grant subsidies to new schools only on condition that they fulfil my requirements in this respect.

I shall not fail at a later time to call for a report of the result of this decree, which refers in all its points only to compulsory and not to voluntary schools."

V.

A few remarks may be made in conclusion.

The continuation school system of Germany is a modern development of an old educational tradition which has had a continuous history of several centuries. Its revival is due in two ways to the Industrial Revolution. Fear of the economic effects of the factory system, which sprang up in England in the last decades of the eighteenth and early years of the nineteenth centuries, soon forced the master

workmen of industrial Germany to increase the efficiency of their apprentices and journeymen by encouraging their attendance at continuation classes. This self-protective movement on the part of the German master-workmen, which may be dated 1830 onwards, gave a new turn to the continuation school system and forms the historic link between its past and present phases. Secondly, in the years immediately following the Franco-German War of 1870-71, the national genius showed itself in masterly applications of scientific method to industrial processes and organisation. In order to win its way to the front rank in world-wide competition, the German people threw itself with characteristic energy into plans for extending educational opportunity. The industrial aptitudes of the workmen must, it was seen, be developed by special training. And the social evils, which arise from want of regulation of the factory system, must be averted by far-seeing local government and by the enforcement of educational and physical discipline. Hence came encouragement from the State to systematic efforts for the establishment of continuation schools chiefly of a technical or commercial character, and approval of plans for compulsory attendance at those schools on the part of youths during the critical years of their adolescence.

To a degree which English political and social conditions would have made impossible, this new educational movement was furthered by the direct authority of the State. In the new policy the workmen themselves have had but little voice. They have indeed approved the establishment of the schools and seem to have willingly acceded to compulsion in spite of the immediate pecuniary loss resulting to themselves through the diminution of the earnings of the family. But no organisations precisely analogous to the English trades unions seem to have borne

an influential part in planning the new educational developments.

The council of a continuation school (*Schulvorstand*) is generally composed as follows: (1) a member of the town council, in smaller places the burgomaster, (2) the director of the school, and (3) representatives of those corporations (*e.g.*, chambers of commerce or of trade and trade guilds of master workmen) which contribute towards its maintenance. It appears that representatives of employed workmen are not included. In England the movement for technical instruction has had to encounter a different situation.

It may also be observed that the main impulse to the movement for the increase of technical continuation schools has come from those towns in which the small workshop has held its own against the factory system. The small independent worker, employing a few skilled assistants and apprentices, has for centuries been a characteristic feature of German industry. In self protection against the threatening advance of the factory system he has wisely helped in developing forms of technical training which may enable himself and his fellow workers to hold their own by means of constructive and artistic skill against the competition of factories organised upon a large scale.

Those employers who regard their apprentices as a source of cheap labour, naturally object to the law requiring attendance at continuation schools. In several places where compulsory attendance was introduced for boys, employers of this type began, as opportunity offered, to replace their boy-apprentices by girls. This was especially the case in commercial offices. When, therefore, compulsory attendance is proposed for girls also, these employers are among the bitterest opponents of the idea. At the present time a brisk agitation is being carried on in many districts by commercial employées and by women's organisations in

favour of the compulsory attendance of girls at continuation schools in commercial or domestic subjects. There are two currents in the agitation: one is the outcome of the desire of women workers to find opportunities of improving their wage-earning capacity, the other proceeds from a widespread feeling that more should be done to train girls for the duties of the home,

Established and made successful mainly by the support of the more intelligent and public-spirited master workmen in towns where the smaller industries were influential and prosperous, the continuation schools quickly spread into the factory districts, where there were obvious social reasons for welcoming an agency which helps the worker to resist the deadening influence of work too minutely specialised or carried on under conditions allowing little scope for initiative or artistic invention.

The history of the continuation school movement in Germany confirms the view that system and scientific precision in educational policy are secured when, but hardly until, the great majority of the employing class has itself received a thoroughly good general education. The reform of secondary education in Germany during the first half of the nineteenth century prepared the way, as nothing else could have prepared it, for the intelligent application of educational measures to social problems. In England the middle classes failed in the heyday of their power to organise secondary education. They dreaded the State as a burnt child dreads the fire. German social organisation to-day, apart from its military aspect, is in its main lines an organisation established and carried on under the influence of the middle classes. And the intellectual foundation of it was laid in the State-aided secondary schools.

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CHAPTER XIX.

The Continuation Schools of Munich.

IN the year 1900, the population of the City of Munich was 499,932. Its industries are various. Brewing of course predominates. The leather and glove trade, the manufacture of machinery, the making of artificial flowers, and of furniture, the production of metal ware, printing and lithography, painting on glass, are all strongly represented. There is also a world-famous brass foundry. The building trade and other similar trades, the invariable accompaniment of a large town, employ many workmen. The workers are mostly engaged in small workshops. The factory system is comparatively undeveloped. With its strong artistic tendency and vigorous communal life, Munich affords an excellent opportunity for the organisation of a system of continuation schools, designed to cultivate industry and artistic skill and to raise the standard of industrial efficiency. This opportunity has been skilfully seized by the Director of Education for the City, Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner who, in his re-organisation of the system of continuation schools since he entered upon the duties of his office in 1895, has achieved a success which is now recognised throughout Germany as one of national importance.

Industrial continuation schools for youths and men (*gewerbliche Fortbildungsschulen*) have existed in Munich since the year 1877. They were reorganised, under Dr. Kerschensteiner's direction, in 1900. Two main groups are to be distinguished—(1) obligatory continuation schools

for apprentices who attend from their fourteenth to their eighteenth year, and (2) voluntary continuation schools for journeymen and master workmen.

The industrial training of apprentices forms the groundwork of the new system. The apprentice is to be made industrially efficient. With this end in view, it is not sufficient for the young people to receive instruction in the purely technical side of their particular calling and to learn something of its commercial and economic aspects. The young apprentice is to become a worthy citizen and must know something of his duties and responsibilities to the State. Any such system of training must not be limited to the apprentice alone. Opportunities must be afforded the journeyman and master workman for further improvement. The whole trade must benefit. The practical instruction, which the apprentice gets in the workshop, is apt to be one sided, owing to specialisation in the particular trades. It is absolutely necessary for the apprentice to receive supplementary instruction, either in a continuation school or in some technical school, organised by the members of the particular calling in which he is engaged. (Innungs-fachschule.) Where such a private institution existed, it has been amalgamated with the municipal institution. The aim of such schools is not to afford the apprentice a *general* education. The instruction is in all cases technical. As far as possible the continuation schools are grouped according to trades. Attendance at a continuation school is compulsory for the apprentice for the whole period of his apprenticeship and for at least three years after leaving the elementary school. For journeymen and master workmen respectively, attendance at "journeymen technical schools" (Gehilfenfachschulen) and at courses for master workmen is voluntary. The course of instruction for journeymen extends for a

period of at least six months. Courses for master workmen may be for a shorter period.

The organisation of the technical continuation schools (fachliche Fortbildungsschulen) is to deepen the interest of the apprentice in his trade. Education must not tend to drive him out of the trade or make him despise manual labour. A craft school forms a part of every such industrial continuation school. In the craft school, care is taken to supplement the instruction given in the workshop, as the latter is apt to be one-sided. Instruction in drawing is subordinated to the practical work done in these craft schools.

Dr. Kerschensteiner is strongly of opinion that a carefully devised scheme of manual instruction should form part of the curriculum in the highest class of the elementary school, in the interest both of general education and of the needs of any particular trade to which the scholar may devote himself after leaving the elementary school.

Compulsory instruction is given for at least eight hours per week. It includes German literature, commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic and book-keeping, knowledge of tools and machinery, instruction in civics and hygiene, drawing and practical work. Apprentices for whom drawing and practical work have not been arranged attend for six hours per week. Each apprentice is also compelled to attend a course of religious instruction. The whole of the instruction is adapted to the various trades. There is no compulsory instruction after 7 p.m. An effort is being made to hold as many classes as possible during the day-time. Sunday is quite free from compulsory classes. Apart from the obligatory course, the apprentice is able to take up other subjects in which he may be interested. Gymnastic exercises form part of the curri-

culum. Throughout the school the pupil is encouraged to develop the sense of responsibility and initiative.

Boys under 18 years, who cannot be accommodated in any of the existing continuation schools, are collected in special continuation schools where a general training is given (allgemeine Fortbildungsschulen). The curriculum of these schools is somewhat like that of the technical continuation schools (fachliche Fortbildungsschulen) and comprises German literature, commercial correspondence, arithmetic, gymnastics, civics, drawing and manual work.

For master workmen and journeymen there exist Sunday and Evening Trade Schools (Sonntag-und-Abendfachschulen). The object of these institutions is to create a deeper interest in the trade in which the students are engaged and not to raise them above it. As in the case of the schools for apprentices the civic aim of technical instruction is kept in view. The technical courses comprise instruction in Freehand and Geometrical Drawing, Painting, Modelling, Beater's-work, Chased work, Commercial Products, Chemistry, Physics, Geometry, Workshop and Laboratory Instruction. Instruction in Commerce and Economics includes Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Theory of Exchange, Commercial Law, Preparation of Estimates and Commercial Correspondence. There are in addition general courses on the History of Industry, History of Handicrafts, Commercial Geography, Hygiene, Trade Union System (Genossenschaftswesen), Insurance Laws, and the Constitution.

If a Trade Guild exists, it is asked to coöperate in the formation and maintenance of the Sunday and Evening Technical Schools. It has the right to suggest suitable teachers to give instruction in those branches of the curriculum which are concerned entirely with trade matters. The members of the committee of any such trade organisation have the right, after giving due notice to the head of

the school, to be present at the instruction and to make any recommendations they deem necessary. But these privileges carry duties with them. The Trade Guild is pledged to support the efforts of the school by urging its members to avail themselves of the facilities afforded and by providing models for use in the instruction. The trade guild meets the cost of the materials for practical work and places at the disposal of the school any objects which may be useful for teaching purposes. Instruction is given on Sundays and holidays in the forenoon and afternoon, and on workdays in the evening. At least five hours per week must be given to instruction in these Sunday and Evening Technical Schools.

There is, in addition, another system of continuation schools for master workmen and journeymen. There are the Day Trade Schools (*Tagesfachsschulen*). They fall into three groups -

(a) Day Trade Schools with a definite curriculum, in which practical instruction forms only a subordinate part. This type of school was created to meet the needs of master workmen and journeymen, who desire further instruction in drawing to fit themselves for such posts as clerk of works, architect, machine designer, pattern maker, designer of furniture, etc.

(b) Day Trade Schools with a definite curriculum, in which practical instruction preponderates. These schools are designed to meet the needs of those master workmen and journeymen, who require further training in their craft.

(c) Day Trade Schools for journeymen who are temporarily unemployed.

The needs of the trades concerned are specially considered in drawing up the curriculum for (a) and (b), but the curriculum for (c) is necessarily

less specific. The Day Trade Schools of the type (a) and (b) are designed for master workmen and journeymen of distinct callings or groups of callings. The schools of type (c) receive pupils of various callings. The schools of type (a) and (b) have a curriculum of at least 30 and at most 48 hours a week. In the schools of type (c) the course extends over 30-36 hours a week. The school year for type (a) extends from October to July 15, a period of nine and a half months. For type (b) there is a special organisation without any long interval for holidays.

For the purpose of educating the public to appreciate artistic workmanship, periodic exhibitions are held and explanatory lectures given.

The new regulations for continuation schools in Munich have been in force since 1900. In the city there are about 6,000 apprentices. These are divided among 48 technical continuation schools. For the young unskilled workers provision is made in 12 "general" continuation schools. The 48 technical continuation schools are housed in four central buildings situated in different quarters of the town. Each technical continuation school has its own craft school, and in all cases there is provision for practical work for apprentices. In the "general" continuation schools, manual training, gymnastics, and instruction in the laws of health and in the duties of citizenship, play an important part. A well planned scheme of manual instruction has been found extremely useful for many unskilled workers, who, often through no fault of their own, have not been able to adopt any particular calling. It forms a basis for further technical and general training up to their eighteenth year.

The two groups of industrial continuation schools for journeymen and master workmen (the Sunday and Evening Trade Schools and the Day Trade Schools) are housed in three special buildings. These schools are attended by

about 2,000 pupils. In accordance with the plan laid down there will eventually be for every compulsory trade-school, for apprentices a voluntary trade school for journeymen and master workmen. At the present time the most important Day Trade Schools for journeymen and master workmen are those for the building trades, locksmiths, woodcarvers, goldsmiths, chasers, stonemasons and decorative painters. All of these schools have corresponding craft schools. In the course of the next few years further schools will be founded for printers and lithographers, for mechanics engaged in the finer grade of work, for those engaged in electro-technical work and for cabinet makers and carpenters.

For women there are various opportunities for further training, after the elementary school course is completed. Every girl who does not proceed to a higher type of school is compelled to attend a continuation school up to the age of sixteen years. This compulsory attendance arises from the statutory duty, dating from 1803, to attend a Sunday school (*Sonntagsschulpflicht*) but for most girls the compulsory instruction is now given on weekdays. In Munich it consists at present of three hours instruction per week.

In 1905-06 there were 6,955 girls in 211 classes in these "Sunday" schools. In addition to this organisation, which hardly affords sufficiently advanced instruction for the needs of the girls of the town, the authorities established in 1894 a further institution, the so-called "*weibliche Fortbildungsschule*." This school is divided into two groups, (1) "domestic" with 1025 scholars in 38 classes, (2) "commercial" with 544 scholars in 16 classes. Instruction is given for from 6 to 10 hours per week, in each class. Attendance is compulsory for every girl who has registered. In addition to the obligatory courses, other branches (such as handicraft and modern languages) are

open for the voluntary attendance of those who care to avail themselves of the facilities offered.

Both "Sunday" schools and "domestic" continuation schools concern themselves primarily with instruction bearing on the future calling of the girls as mothers and housewives. The three years' course comprises instruction in matters relating to housing, clothing and diet, the duties of the family, the bringing up of children, the duties of woman in the State, and the care of the household. There is also practical instruction in cookery.

There are two other institutions which concern themselves with the technical education of women after the completion of the elementary school course. These are the (municipal) Riemerschmid Commercial School and the Frauenarbeitschule founded by the Popular Education Society (Volksbildungsverein). Each of these schools has about 600 scholars. The Riemerschmid Commercial School trains women for higher commercial occupations in three graduated courses, each with 25 hours instruction per week. In connection with this institution there is a training school for teachers of commercial subjects. The Frauenarbeitschule provides instruction in all branches of handicraft for women. It has a department for training teachers of handicraft for elementary and higher grade schools (Volk- und Mittelschulen). The yearly cost of the Riemerschmid School, which is borne by the municipality, amounts to £2,400. The municipality bears part (£3,200) of the cost of the Frauenarbeitsschule.

In the course of the preparation of this chapter a number of questions were put to Dr. Kerschensteiner on the broader issues raised by the application of the principle of compulsion to attendance at continuation schools. These questions, with the answers which he was so good as to make to them, are given below :

- (1) *Is it your opinion that, when all the circumstances are taken into account, a system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools is preferable to a system of voluntary attendance?*

Answer: The question, as to whether compulsory or voluntary continuation schools are preferable, has, after a struggle of many years' duration, been decided in favour of the compulsory system in nearly the whole of Germany, at least for young people up to the age of 16, 17 or 18 years. All the largest towns in Germany have now such compulsory continuation schools. The compulsory system affects not the scholar alone but above all the master-workman who employs him. If there is no compulsion, many capable boys and girls, keenly desirous of self improvement, are prevented from attending continuation school through the carelessness or greed of their employers. Moreover, unless the law enforces a wider course of training, most of the scholars take advantage only of the technical training afforded and neglect the courses bearing on the duties and responsibilities of the individual to the State and to his fellows.

- (2) *Do you think attendance should be compulsory for girls as well as for boys?*

Answer: Compulsory attendance is as necessary for girls as for boys; indeed, for girls it is really more necessary. Care should be taken that no girl goes out into the world inadequately equipped for the duties which are likely sooner or later to devolve upon her as mother and housewife. As things are at present, most girls have to go out to earn their living at an early age. If attendance at the continuation school is not compulsory, a girl is, in many cases, prevented from receiving the training which is of the greatest value for her future duties.

(3) *Between what ages would you have attendance compulsory*

(a) *for boys?*

(b) *for girls?*

Answer: In Munich attendance is compulsory (a) for boys up to the eighteenth, (b) for girls up to the sixteenth year.

(4) *Is it possible to secure the attendance of female domestic servants at continuation schools?*

By means of strict School Attendance Regulations the attendance of domestic servants of every kind is assured in Bavaria. Every girl has to attend a continuation school for at least three hours per week until she has attained her sixteenth birthday. In case of her absence without adequate excuse, the parents and the employers are punished.

(5) *Do employers complain of inconvenience through having to send the boys in their employment to continuation schools? Do you think that such complaints are reasonable?*

Is public opinion more favourable to compulsory attendance than it used to be

(a) *among employers,*

(b) *among workmen,*

(c) *among apprentices?*

Answer: Business people and employers in general no longer complain in any way of the compulsory continuation school system. Many regard it as a burden, it is true, but those who are liberal-minded feel that it is a burden which ought to be borne.

Speaking generally, public opinion among employers, workpeople and apprentices alike is entirely favourable to

the compulsory continuation schools. The apprentices especially approve the system because the schools are grouped according to trades. Their appreciation of the system is proved by the fact that a large number of them continue to attend the schools voluntarily when their period of compulsory attendance is over.

- (6) *Have you any difficulties in regard to order and discipline in the continuation schools through the presence of unruly pupils, who attend unwillingly?*

The reorganisation of the continuation schools has not caused the slightest difficulty in regard to school attendance. The greatest interest is taken by the pupils in the various classes. Of course, there are always some lazy ones, but the general interest in the work is shown by the fact that there have never been fewer absences without excuse than during the last five years.

- (7) *How do you enforce attendance at the continuation schools? Are there many cases of prosecution on account of truancy?*

Answer: In general there is no need of regulations to enforce attendance. The pupils come willingly and gladly. If a scholar does play truant, he is made to appear before the Education Authority (Schulbehörde) and cautioned. If the offence is repeated a money fine is imposed, and, if need be, the offender is imprisoned.

- (8) *Do you think that compulsory attendance at continuation schools causes physical overstrain during adolescence to boys or girls, when their work in school is additional to long hours in shop, office or workshop?*

Answer: The continuation schools (at any rate those established in Munich, or those which exist in most of the Prussian towns) impose no new burden on the apprentice. Attendance is required during the working day from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. In Munich the apprentices come between 7 and 9 a.m. or between 1 and 7 p.m. There is no instruction after 7 p.m. Many trades accord a *complete day* for the attendance of apprentices at the continuation school.

C. E. STOCKTON.

COST OF THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS OF MUNICH, 1906-7,
WITH NUMBERS OF PUPILS ON THE REGISTERS.

[The totals given below do not include interest on cost
of buildings.]

(1) Continuation Schools for Apprentices.

[Attendance at which is compulsory.]

Cost, £28,042. 10s. 0d. ... Number of pupils, 7,333.

Cost per pupil, £3. 16s. 6d.

(2) Schools for Master Workmen and Journeymen.

[Attendance at which is voluntary.]

Cost, £15,459. 0s. 0d. ... Number of pupils, 2,500.

Cost per pupil, £6. 3s. 8d.

(3) Voluntary Continuation Schools for girls and women.

[Voluntary attendance 6-10 hours per week.]

Cost, £3,571. 0s. 0d. ... Number of pupils, 1,817.

Cost per pupil, £1. 19s. 3d.

(4) The compulsory continuation schools for girls (Feiertagschulen) at which attendance for three hours a week is

required from those who do not attend the schools under (3) above.

Cost, £1,941. 0s. 0d. ... Number of Pupils, 7,202.

Cost per pupil, 5s. 4d.

(5) Thus the total cost of the Continuation Schools of Munich for 1906-7 (excluding interest on capital expenditure) was £49,013. 10s. 0d., or including the cost of the Riemerschmid Commercial School for Women and the municipal contribution to the Women's Work School (Frauenarbeitsschule), £54,613. 10s. 0d.

CHAPTER XX.

The Continuation Schools of Switzerland.

THE educational organisation of Switzerland is marked by the absence of centralisation in the hands of one Federal authority. This characteristic is due to the strong traditional dislike of anything which might interfere with cantonal freedom. The Federal Constitution of 1874 states that education throughout Switzerland must be obligatory, free and under the supervision of the canton, and that the public schools must be such that they can be attended by children of all religious beliefs without hurt to their freedom of belief or conscience. This general rule governs the educational policy of all the cantons. But each canton has its own educational system from the primary school up to the gymnasium, or in some cases to the university. It decides for itself the limits as to age and attainments within which the law as to compulsory attendance shall apply; and it makes its own regulations as to the distribution of grants to State-aided schools. Subject to the general control of the central cantonal authority, which is a very real control, each locality is free to rate itself and spend its own money on education of all grades. The systems vary considerably from canton to canton, some being more centralised than others.

But, directly and indirectly, the Federal Government influences education in more ways than one. The Federal law forbids the employment of children in factories before the completion of their fourteenth year, and provides that

until they are sixteen the time given to work in the factory together with that which may be devoted to purposes of instruction, shall not exceed eleven hours a day. This latter regulation is especially important from the point of view of the subject in this chapter. Instruction in military drill and exercises is made by Federal law a part of the compulsory school programme for all youths between ten and fifteen years of age, and a Federal contribution is made towards the expense of its provision. The Federal Government also prescribes, and itself holds, a universal examination for recruits entering the army at twenty years of age. The highest form of technical education is provided by the Federal Government at the Polytechnic at Zürich. Moreover, Federal grants are given for industrial, agricultural and commercial education and for domestic economy and other forms of technical training for women and, since 1903, subventions have been given to the cantons to help them to fulfil their obligations concerning elementary education. Subject to the general condition that they are to be expended on public primary schools only (including *écoles complémentaires* and compulsory schools for adults) these subventions may be used for any of the following purposes:—(1) The establishment of new classes; (2) new buildings and improvements in existing buildings; (3) gymnasiums; (4) training of teachers and normal school buildings; (5) increase in teachers' salaries and pensions; (6) school furniture and equipment; (7) distribution to pupils (free or at low price) of obligatory school books and materials; (8) feeding and clothing of poor children (where the canton undertakes this); (9) education of feeble-minded children of obligatory school age. The canton decides to which of the above objects the subvention shall be applied, and if it hands over all or part of the sum to a commune

it (the canton) fixes how it shall be spent. The canton is responsible to the Federal Government for the legal spending of the money by the commune.

I.—RECRUITS' SCHOOLS.

In Switzerland majority is attained on the twentieth birthday. About this time the men are called up for military (militia) training, and must undergo a literary examination in the three R's and a knowledge of the constitution.

The recruits' examination was instituted in order to exclude the unteachable from the army. It is now regarded as a test of the primary education of a canton, and cantonal rivalry makes it an instrument of moral pressure on backward districts. Every year a list of cantons in order of merit is published, and supplementary lists refer to districts, parishes, specific subjects and aggregate performances.

In ten cantons, attendance at a Recruits' School, a kind of continuation school which prepares pupils for this Federal examination, is compulsory, but exemption is granted to those who have attended secondary schools and to those attending higher continuation schools, industrial or commercial.

As an example of the Rekrutenschulen let us consider the schools of Lucerne. The course covers two consecutive years, in each of which forty hours' tuition is given. Attendance is compulsory. No class contains more than forty pupils. Two-thirds of the lessons are given in winter, and the remainder immediately before the recruiting season opens. In winter, instruction may not be given on Sundays or Church holidays. In summer, work may be taken on these days, but not during morning service. If the school be far from the pupils' homes, evening classes are forbidden.

The teacher draws up the time-table and the Director of Education chooses the text-books. The school is a military school, and the pupils are under military discipline both as to attendance and conduct. The teacher must be present at the federal examination, and squad sergeants must see that their men are sober.

II.—ELEMENTARY CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

The scope of the general continuation school is well shown by the following programme of work issued by Canton Zug:—

Reading and Writing, one hour per week. The subjects are chosen from patriotic literature, natural history, and reports on agriculture or industry. The object is to ensure a clear understanding of the text. Questions on the context and reproduction of the subject matter, orally and on paper, are freely employed. The pupils are given essays and letters to write, and are taught how to make out receipts and invoices. Patriotic songs are taught.

Arithmetic and Simple Book-keeping, one hour per week. The syllabus includes vulgar and decimal fractions, simple proportion, interest and elementary mensuration. Book-keeping deals with the day-book, ledger and balance-sheet.

Knowledge of the Constitution, one hour per week. The political and physical condition of Switzerland; history of the Federation; the political organisation of parish, canton, and Federation.

The civil and commercial relations of the cantons (speech, commerce, religion, climate and trade routes).

The State:—Poor-law, registration, mortgage law, finance, agriculture, the licensing acts, taxes.

The citizen:—Liberty of the subject, protection of pro-

erty, the franchise, the "law of association" (*Vereinsrecht*), freedom of religion, of thought and of the press, military duties and obedience.

In Canton Vaud the programme is drawn up with a view to supplementing defective primary education, but "the mode of instruction is suited to the young man of eighteen and not to a child of ten. It is less didactic and more conversational. The desire is to develop personal initiative, precision and clearness of thought, and to cultivate reason and the sympathies rather than the memory."

Reports from various cantons indicate that as regards the continuation schools the best results are obtained when instruction is given in the daytime and for a period of three consecutive hours. In Vaud "discipline and work have been satisfactory, owing to the fact that the courses were held in the afternoon in many parishes." In St. Gall a number of schools meet from 1 p.m. to 5 p.m., and others dismiss at 10 p.m. The earlier period is decidedly more advantageous. In Appenzell one period of three hours is preferred to two periods of one hour and a half. In Aargau the time for dismissal is fixed at 7 p.m.; in Thurgau it is 8 p.m. At various industrial centres day continuation classes have been started, so that apprentices can attend for one afternoon per week with a minimum loss of time, but these schools belong more properly to the specialised continuation schools, about to be described.

In some cantons attendance at continuation schools is compulsory, in some the question is left to the decision of the commune, and in some it is optional.¹ When attendance is optional, a higher standard of learning is expected and a deposit is usually required as caution money; every unexcused absence entails a fine, and when

1. See pp. 569—574 for full particulars as to compulsory attendance.

the deposit is exhausted the offender must leave. In Solothurn, where attendance is voluntary, the village schools are amalgamated into district schools and pupils are classified as to trades.

III.—ILLUSTRATION OF THE GENERAL ORGANISATION OF CONTINUATION AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN A CANTON.

Before proceeding to describe in detail the various types of specialised continuation school, it may be well to give some idea of the general organisation of continuation and technical schools in a canton. The Neuchâtel schools, of which a description is given below, are a good illustration of cantonal organisation. The population of Neuchâtel in 1904 was 131,304. The canton has an area of 312 square miles.

(i.) *Ecoles de perfectionnement.*

- (a) *Ecoles complémentaires*, recruits' school. Compulsory attendance for four months in winter for two sessions, from 7-30 p.m. to 9-30 p.m., twice a week.
- (b) *Ecoles professionnelles*, held from 7-30 to 9-30 p.m. For boys and girls. Five schools, 750 pupils.
- (c) Domestic economy schools, day courses of thirteen weeks' duration. Two schools, 410 pupils.

(ii.) *Ecoles d'apprentissage*, day courses [Trade Schools].

Three commercial schools, at Neuchâtel, Le Locle, La Chaux de Fonds; 480 boys, 100 girls.

Holiday commercial course at Neuchâtel; 280 boys, 60 girls.

Two watch-making schools; 72 pupils.

Three technical schools; 133 pupils.

Instrument makers' school; 80 pupils.

School of industrial art; 235 boys, 40 girls.

Agricultural school; 32 pupils.

Viticultural school; 9 pupils.

Courses for adults at Le Locle; 30 courses, 520 pupils.

IV.—SPECIALISED CONTINUATION SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

The specialised continuation schools in Switzerland fall into three main groups:—

- (a) Commercial Continuation Schools,
- (b) Technical Continuation Schools,
- (c) Continuation Schools for Girls.

They are managed by the cantons, by chambers of commerce, by private societies, or by trade unions.

(a) *Commercial Continuation Schools.*

For admission to the railway and the post office service, and to the minor professions, six years primary education and three years higher education are usually demanded. This would make a nine years' course at the day school. But in lieu of the last year of the course, the pupil may attend a commercial continuation school, the work of which is generally done in the evening. There are many of these schools maintained by school boards and societies, the chief society being the Union of Swiss Merchants.

In 1861 societies were formed in Bern and Zürich to organise continuation courses for clerks. In time a commercial union, to which the Federation gave grants in 1891, was formed for the maintenance of commercial classes. A new period of prosperity then began, as cantonal and communal aid followed. In 1904 there were 64 schools earning Federal grants amounting to £5,530. One school

was in London. It had 18 pupils, the expenses amounted to £56 and the Federal grant to £31. In 1904 there were 6,629 pupils in these schools.

There were in addition eighteen schools not belonging to the Union. These were attended by 2,800 pupils, and received Federal grants amounting to £753. One of the schools, with 155 pupils, was in Paris and received a grant of £200.

The Central Committee of the Union has hitherto given most of its attention to the extension of schools and has left the construction of curricula to local effort. It is aware that a rational curriculum, with obligatory subjects, must be drawn up if the results are to correspond with the outlay. At large centres a curriculum is already prescribed. It usually covers six half years, in each of which four subjects are studied, two hours per week being given to each. Special courses and lectures are arranged for older persons.

In cantons where attendance at some kind of continuation school is compulsory, the commercial classes are popular and business houses give their apprentices facilities to attend. Where no compulsion exists, it is rare to find more than half the apprentices in attendance, but in Zürich Town, the largest centre of population in Switzerland, this proportion is reached.

In general no one under fourteen years of age is admitted. Instruction is usually given in the evening from 7 p.m. to 10 p.m. The alternatives are the early morning and mid-day, but no arrangement is as yet completely satisfactory. The best solution would be to make some sacrifice of office time, as was done at 24 centres in 1900. Branch societies have recommended the inclusion of a clause to this effect in the articles of apprenticeship.

The Union holds an annual examination in which the

following subjects are obligatory: composition in the mother tongue, commercial correspondence in the mother tongue and in one foreign language, commercial arithmetic, mental arithmetic, book-keeping, commercial law, practical knowledge of commerce, commercial geography and writing. The following are optional: correspondence in other foreign languages, shorthand, special knowledge of a branch of commerce. The organisation of the examination is left to local committees composed of official representatives and competent business men. A successful candidate receives a diploma and a certificate. In 1904 there were 291 diplomas awarded. Business houses give preference to men holding these distinctions.

The Department of Trade and Industries distributes the Federal grants to these schools, and exerts, in consequence, some influence on the organisation. It wishes to see the maximum size of a class reduced to ten pupils, a necessity when time is limited and intensive methods must be used.

As a rule fees are paid in all classes; experience shows that free tuition causes laxity of attendance. Fees vary from 5 to 30 centimes per hour. Teachers of commercial subjects must have had business experience. Many of those employed are State teachers, a few are business men with leisure.

An attempt was made to organise a day commercial school with a time-table of eight hours per week, of which four were granted by employers from office work. This arrangement was not successful and was soon modified, so that the course extends over five half-years, in each of which two subjects are obligatory. In the obligatory curriculum those subjects are included which need special attention. At present languages are not included, as the examination shows that they are not neglected. The hours fixed are from 7 to 9 a.m., 1 to 3 p.m., and 6 to 8 p.m.

Each period includes one hour of business time. An apprentice wishing to enrol himself must be over fifteen years of age and must possess the attainments equivalent to three years' attendance at schools other than primary.

In Canton Vaud the Union now manages the cantonal continuation schools of commerce. In Freiburg a school has been founded with the Union's co-operation. The Union is now publishing text-books for use in its schools. As an indication of the work of the schools we may state that Spanish, Russian, Actuarial, Mathematics and Political Economy are among the subjects taught.

(b) Technical Continuation Schools.

These schools are being remodelled in many cantons. In St. Gall the regulations date from 1892. We will first discuss the actual state of affairs in this canton.

In 1902 there were 31 schools with 128 teachers and over 1500 pupils. Cantonal grants amounted to £595 and Federal grants to £947. The schools were inspected by Federal and Cantonal experts. Three teachers received bursaries to enable them to attend holiday courses in machine drawing. Five visiting teachers were employed for about 2,000 hours. One visited eight schools. The average visit lasted three hours.

The payment of teachers varied from 1.50 to 3 francs per hour; an attempt is being made to fix a minimum of 2 francs. The commune is responsible for the maintenance of the classes. The cantonal grant amounts to 55 centimes per hour, the federal grant to 90 centimes. Over sixty per cent. of the lessons are in drawing. Other subjects are modern languages, book-keeping, mathematics, chemistry and physics.

In St. Gall town the school is open in summer from

8 a.m. to noon, from 2 to 5 p.m., from 6 to 9 p.m., on weekdays, and from 8 a.m. to noon on Sundays.

In Basel Town the schools are being reorganised, and a discussion of the steps taken will throw light on many questions. In 1886 a technical continuation school was formed by amalgamating a number of private courses. In 1896 it was decided to reorganise the school. The teachers of the school presented a memorial recommending the formation of a 'two years' preparatory course of general education, a day art and a day technical school, public workshops and continuation classes for apprentices, journeymen and masters. The Council of State looked on the day technical school and the public workshops as unnecessary, and announced that their policy was to supplement the work of a master not to replace it. The Council brought in a Bill providing for the establishment of public technical and professional continuation schools which should give apprentices, journeymen and masters the instruction in theory and practice and the general artistic culture which could not be given in a workshop. In each year there were to be two sessions of twenty weeks. Day and evening classes were provided for and, in winter, Sunday classes too. The courses thus contemplated were:--

I. *Supplementary courses*, extending the work of the primary school.

II. *Preparatory classes*, for technical courses, in mathematics, chemistry, physics and drawing.

III. *Technical and Art Classes*, to suit local tastes.

Among the subjects are book-keeping, practical geometry and the history of art.

Provision is made for short periodical courses and for girls' classes. Admission is granted to residents over 14 years of age and to schoolboys over 13. Candidates under 18 years of age must show that their education is equivalent

to that of the average pupil in higher public schools of 13 years of age before they are admitted to the preparatory courses. For such pupils a minimum curriculum is drawn up. It demands eight hours per week in summer and ten in winter. Firms are bound to give their apprentices leave to attend classes—this legalises what was regarded as a moral obligation,—but not more than four hours before 6 p.m. are demanded. Classes must not exceed 25 pupils for practice or 35 for theory.

A sum of eight francs must be deposited as caution money. Reports are issued every term to pupils and employers. The officials are—a rector, who is also custodian of the museum, at a salary of £340, a prorector and a secretary. The teachers are either State teachers or workmen who hold diplomas. In 1904 the Federal grant earned by the school was £1,890.

Legislation on the subject of apprenticeship was a natural sequel to a revision of the Act of Dec. 20, 1886. In France the law of 1851, in Austria the *Gewerbeordnung* of 1860, and in Germany the code of 1897 deal with apprenticeship. In Switzerland the Federal Government has passed no special Act, except in so far as the Factory Act and the Law of Contracts apply.

A number of cantons are considering their statutes relating to apprenticeship. Three main questions come up for consideration:—

1. Shall the employer be bound to afford his apprentices time to attend continuation classes?
2. Shall the apprentice be bound to attend continuation classes?
3. Shall the apprentice be bound to attend an examination?

In Obwalden, Glarus, Zug, Freiburg, Vaud, Valais,

Neuchâtel, Bern, Zurich, Basel Town, and Geneva, Acts have already been passed. Measures relating to the examination of apprentices and the whole question of apprenticeship are under consideration in Lucerne, Schwyz, Solothurn, Aargau and Thurgau.

These Cantonal Acts and Bills differ in details. In general they give an affirmative answer to all three of the questions mentioned above. For example, in the Apprenticeship Act of the Canton of Zurich (1905) it is declared to be "the duty of the master to give the greatest possible attention to the physical and mental well-being of the apprentice and to educate him in the principles and skill required for the business." The master is required "to conduct the training of the apprentice either in person or through the medium of a suitable substitute." He is bound to allow the apprentice at least four hours a week for attendance at such industrial, commercial or general continuation classes as may take place during his hours of work.

After considering these examples, the Basel Council of State decided to attach more importance to the training of an apprentice than to the award of a diploma. They approved of the principle that leave should be given to attend classes as in Vaud, Obwalden, Lucerne and Zug. (In Zug five hours; in Zürich and in Lucerne, four hours a week were fixed as the maximum. In Bern three hours per week is a minimum.) But the Basel Council wished it to be understood that they considered the work of the continuation classes valuable as a means of general education. This general education, they believed, would enable the apprentice to profit, to a greater extent, by the

1. The Gewerbeverein is a voluntary association receiving a subsidy from the State.

instruction of the master. So much importance did they attach to the teaching of the master that they thought incompetent masters should be denied the right to receive apprentices. This principle is enforced in other cantons by direct legislation.

The Basel Chamber of Commerce opposed the extension of the Act to commercial apprentices on the ground that evasion was easy. The Union of Basel shopkeepers, while not withholding approval, submitted a draft of their own. The Union of Mechanics and Artizans, which has for a long time advocated that the apprentices' examination should be obligatory, considered the extension absolutely necessary for the promotion of trade efficiency.

The Bill drawn up by the Council of State contains the following provisions:—

1. Apprentices are placed under cantonal control.
2. A committee of supervision is appointed. Five of the fourteen members must be employers, five must be workpeople and two must be women.
3. The right to engage apprentices may be withdrawn from an employer convicted of neglect or ill-treatment.
4. An apprentice must be over 14 years of age.
5. A written contract signed by the master, the guardian and the apprentice must be executed. Each party receives a copy and a third is filed at the Home Office for approval.
6. The contents must specify the nature of the trade, the length of the apprenticeship, the time of probation, the length of the day's work and the consideration given and received.
7. A master is responsible for the teaching of his apprentice, to whom he must give time:
 - (i.) to attend classes for religious instruction.
 - (ii.) to attend classes and examinations,
 - (iii.) to prepare for the latter.

8. The apprentice must attend continuation classes.

The Act applies to minors of either sex who wish to learn a certain trade in a workshop or in a commercial establishment or with a private individual; but it does not apply to establishments coming under the Federal law regulating work in factories.

9. A week's work for boys shall not exceed 60 hours in which time 6 hours of class work is included: that for girls under 15, not more than 54 hours per week.

10. The Council of State may make attendance at an examination obligatory for apprentices in particular trades. The examination shall be open to all apprentices on the termination of their articles.

11. Neglect of duty towards master, school or teacher on the part of an apprentice is punishable by fine or imprisonment.

The Act became law on June 14, 1906.

In Neuchâtel, Freiburg, Geneva and Obwalden, the examination is held conjointly by the cantonal and the local authorities and prizes are given by the cantons. It is proposed to follow this example in Zürich, Bern, Lucerne and Zug. A private society, the Swiss Gewerbeverein, holds an annual examination. In 1905 there were 2,080 candidates drawn from 90 trades. This examination is open to boys and girls, provided their articles fix a reasonable length of apprenticeship. For bakers, slaters and butchers the minimum is two years; for printers, stonemasons and engineers the minimum is from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 years. Each candidate must have regularly attended a technical continuation school for two half-years and must have completed a general education. The examination in the latter includes the mother tongue, arithmetic, simple book-keeping and drawing. School certificates of equal value exempt. The professional examination includes an oral examination in technical subjects and a practical

examination in a workshop to test manual skill and dexterity.

Recently the question of giving a cantonal character to these examinations has been debated. The step has been taken in Neuchâtel, Glarus, Vaud, Freiburg, Obwalden and Geneva. In ten other cantons a motion to do so is being considered. Already the Society distributes annually over 15,000 forms of articles of apprenticeship, and over 20 per cent. of the total number of apprentices take the examination. This proportion is likely to increase rapidly now that several populous cantons have made the examination compulsory. In 1903 there were 1,991 candidates (1,447 men, 544 girls). Of these 38 per cent. had attended secondary schools, including day technical schools, and 72 per cent. had attended continuation classes. Over 1,600 passed as "excellent" or "good," and 1,909 in all gained certificates. The Society issued 17,826 certificates from 1877 to 1903. It receives a Federal grant of £520 per annum, which nearly meets the expense of the examination.

The following statistics relate to the Basel schools:—

		LESSONS PER WEEK.					
Time.....	7 a.m.-12.		2-5 p.m.		5-7 p.m.		7-9 p.m.
Summer.....	38	...	63	...	135	...	130 for men.
	30	...	16	...	4	...	0 for women.
Winter	80	...	107	...	188	...	210 for men.
	25	...	18	...	4	...	0 for women.
					Summer.		Winter.
Number of pupils (men only)					853	 1114
,, ,, "visitors" ¹ (men only).....					80	 108
					— 933	 — 1222
Of these :							
Number of journeymen					174	 312
,, ,, teachers					8	 11
,, ,, apprentices					674	 798
,, ,, University students					7	 21
,, ,, schoolboys					70	 80
					— 933	 — 1222

1. A "visitor" is a student attached to the University, or some other place of instruction, who attends, by arrangement, for special purposes. The numbers in brackets refer to these visitors, and in each case indicate the number of the latter included in the figure immediately to the left.

Previous Education :

"Defective" less than 7 years	61	75
"Moderate" 7 years only	288	287 (6)
"Good" 8 years	376 (18)	587 (28)
"Very Good" over 8 years	208 (62)	273 (74)
Pupils in first term	260 (33)	373 (56)
„ „ second term	189 (23)	246 (25)
„ „ third term	150 (9)	181 (12)
„ „ fourth term	110 (5)	131 (3)
„ „ fifth term	78 (2)	96 (4)
„ „ sixth term	50 (1)	74 (2)
„ over six terms	96 (7)	121 (6)

	Summer.	Winter.
Number of women in attendance	139	131
Engaged in art	16	13
Engaged in teaching.....	60	68
Total number of pupils	1072*	1353†
Natives of the Canton	882	1127
* 933 men, 139 women. † 1222 men, 131 women.		

In attendance (men only) from :—	Summer.		Winter.	
	Pupils.	Visitors.	Pupils.	Visitors.
2 to 4 hrs. per week	340	69	384	96
5 to 6 hrs. per week	154	6	212	7
7 to 8 hrs. per week	195	2	224	2
9 to 10 hrs. per week.....	59	1	80	1
over 10 hrs. per week ...	105	2	214	2

The certificate of a technical continuation school receives value if the holder proceed to a day technical institute. A promising apprentice may be admitted as a second-year student if his certificate shows a sufficient standard of attainment.

(c) Continuation Schools for Girls.

Much is done over a great part of Switzerland to give training in needlework, cookery and household management to girls who have completed their course in the

primary schools. Most of this activity is due to private effort, aided in many cases by grants from public funds. The classes thus arranged attract a large attendance of pupils and their work is heartily supported by public opinion.

Sewing is carefully taught to girls in the primary schools. In many cantons lessons in domestic economy also form part of the primary school course. In Canton Thurgau girls continue to attend the primary school for a ninth year for instruction in sewing. In Solothurn girls are obliged to remain at the primary school for a ninth year unless they attend a housekeeping school, of which there are ten in the canton. These housekeeping schools are district schools, serving a number of neighbouring parishes. The courses include sewing, washing, starching and ironing, domestic economy, cookery and housekeeping. The pupils attend in the mornings and afternoons alternately.

Attendance at continuation schools in the usual sense of the term is not compulsory in the case of girls except in Canton Freiburg, and there only since 1904.¹

The importance of providing instruction in domestic subjects for girls and women in town and country districts is universally recognised in Switzerland. The need for such teaching in the industrial districts is especially felt. When a girl works in a factory the home training is often lost. She leaves the public school too young to gain any benefit from the housekeeping and cookery classes and has barely completed the sewing course.

The following are the chief varieties of school which offer

1. In Canton Vaud, under the apprenticeship law, attendance at technical classes, for a period of two years, is compulsory for girls apprenticed to the tailoring, dressmaking, underclothing and laundry trades.

instruction in domestic subjects to girls beyond the primary school age:—

(a) Continuation Schools.

(b) Needlework Schools (Arbeitsschulen, or Ecoles professionnelles).

(c) Housekeeping Schools (Haushaltungsschulen or Ecoles ménagères).

(a) *Continuation Schools.* Since the passing of a Federal resolution, December 20, 1895, which declared that continuation schools for girls were eligible for Government grants, provided they gave instruction in needlework, cookery and laundry work, the progress of these schools has been rapid. Within eight years the attendance in Canton Zürich increased a hundredfold. The continuation school for girls at Winterthur is especially interesting and complete. It offers day and evening classes in branches of knowledge indispensable for housekeeping and in commercial subjects. The subjects taught include, on the domestic side, sewing, cutting out, dressmaking, embroidery, cookery, domestic economy and laundry work, and on the commercial side, letter writing, book-keeping, French, Italian and shorthand. There are also classes in hygiene, drawing and gymnastics. More than 600 students are in attendance, the day and evening students being about equally divided and about one-third being over twenty years of age.

The programme for the schools of Freiburg, issued in 1901, is as follows:—

1. Clothing: General and hygienic observations; cutting out and making; washing; calculation of cost.

2. Cookery: Value of different foods; soups, meat, vegetables, eggs, milk, puddings, sweets; invalid cookery; calculations of cost.

3. The Garden: Vegetables, herbs, flowers.

4. Hygiene: The house, the skin, the sick-room, the care of infants.

In large towns it is easy to arrange courses. In the country, to avoid difficulty of communication, cookery vans are sometimes fitted up, and they travel a beat of six groups of villages, spending a day or a night at each per week.

(b) *Needlework Schools.* These schools provide (1) courses of from three to six months for girls and women who wish to gain special skill in some particular branch of needlework, and (2) in many cases, apprenticeship courses, lasting from one and a half to four years, for those who intend to earn their living by dressmaking or sewing. Some of the schools are managed by the public school authorities, others by societies of public utility. Grants from public funds are given to both. There are important needlework schools in Basel, Neuchâtel, Lausanne, Geneva, St. Gall, Freiburg, Aarau, Zürich and Bern. The last two are under the management of private societies assisted by public grants. At the schools in Zürich and Geneva, courses of instruction in French, German, book-keeping, drawing, etc., are given in addition to those in different kinds of needlework.

(c) *Housekeeping Schools.* Some of these are boarding schools, the pupils doing all or most of the work in the house. They are small, and the courses vary in length from three months to a year. The fees vary according to the class of student for which the school is intended. Some are for girls from well-to-do families, some for peasant girls and for others intending to enter domestic service.

The other type of housekeeping school is for day pupils who live at home. In some cases the attendance is from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. In Basel Town such a school has been established as a branch of the needlework school with the

object of giving theoretical and practical instruction in housekeeping. There are similar schools in Neuchâtel and Lucerne. That in Neuchâtel provides yearly three courses of three months each. An interesting form of the day housekeeping school is found in the country villages of Aarau and in the canton of Basel Land.¹

V.—CONTINUATION COURSES FOR TEACHERS.

In 1899 the Federal Department of Trade and Industries issued the report of a special commission on training courses for teachers of drawing, in which a hope was expressed that cantons would arrange holiday courses, so that the difficulty of providing efficient elementary instruction in country schools might be overcome. In the towns there are sufficient teachers. In some districts a system of visiting teachers meets the case. But so far the country teacher has not shown sufficient skill, and this the department believes could be gained at special holiday courses.

The usual arrangement observed with a holiday course is for a society to organise it and the cantons to grant aid. The Swiss Society for Promoting Manual Training, for example, receives a Federal grant of 1,000 francs in addition to cantonal aid. There are courses for teachers at technical continuation classes at Aarau, for teachers of weak-minded children, for teachers of commercial subjects and for drawing masters at various centres. The various teachers' associations arrange courses for their members, and recently a summer meeting was held in connection with the University of Zürich. Trade Unions also arrange practical courses for journeymen to which

1. A valuable paper by Miss M. Cécile Matheson on *The Teaching of Domestic Science in Switzerland*, is printed in Vol. 16 of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*, issued by the Board of Education (Wynmans, 1906).

public support is given. Without entering into details we may state one general result:—It is found better to give a teacher a knowledge of special technical work than to take a skilled workman and endeavour to train him as a teacher.

VI.—COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AT CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

A proposal was made in 1874, when the Federal constitution was revised, that attendance at continuation schools should be declared obligatory. The proposal was not carried, nor was another giving the Federal Government power to appoint Federal inspectors of primary schools. Some cantons have, however, declared attendance compulsory; in a few, Bern and St. Gall for example, the question is left for decision to the commune. It is necessary to warn the reader that he must interpret the word obligatory with some reservation. A commune may declare enrolment to be voluntary, but may compel all who have enrolled to attend. A detailed description of the regulations must be sought by the student in the annual reports of the cantonal authorities and in the various issues of the *Jahrbuch des Erziehungswesens in der Schweiz*.¹

The following particulars are taken from the proof-sheets of the new edition of the *Jahrbuch*, kindly placed at the disposal of the writer by the editor, Dr. Huber. The regulations refer to boys only, except where otherwise stated.

Zürich. No obligatory schools.

The general continuation schools and the continuation schools for girls are placed under an inspector who visits each school once a year. The inspector assists in the formation of new schools and courses, and conducts classes

1. A list of Cantonal Acts and Regulations is given at the end of the *Jahrbuch* for 1902.

for persons intending to become teachers in continuation schools. He may also be called on to prepare text-books for use in the schools. (Circular, 24 Oct., 1900.)

In 1904, an attempt was made to make the continuation schools for girls more uniform in syllabus and programme. Eight district schools have now taken the place of twenty-two small village schools.

In the Gewerbeschule of Zürich Town a pupil must now pass a preliminary examination in German, arithmetic and book-keeping before he is admitted to advanced courses.

Bern. The commune decides the question of compulsory attendance. Speaking generally it may be said that all communes declare attendance compulsory for boys for two winter sessions of 60 hours each. Manual work is taught in the schools.

Between the age of leaving the primary school and that of presenting himself for military service a boy is considered to be of continuation school age. In hill communes, where the numbers are small, the continuation school may only be open for alternate periods of two years. Exemption from attendance can be obtained by passing an examination. Reports are sent out once every half-year to parents.

Lucerne. No compulsory continuation school. The Wiederholungsschule is a half-timers' school, at which certain boys must attend up to the sixteenth year at least two courses of 30 full days or 60 half days each. The recruits' school is compulsory for pupils between 17 and 19 years of age. Two courses of 40 hours each.

Uri. Attendance obligatory. All young men must attend three annual courses of 40 hours from the age of 16. The recruit's preparatory course is abandoned.

Schwyz. Attendance obligatory for recruits. Two years' course of 40 hours each year from 17th year. No other regulations for continuation schools.

Obwalden. No obligatory general continuation school. The name Fortbildungsschule is given to a winter course for half-timers which replaces the VII. and VIII. standards. Recruits' courses of 40 hours obligatory.

Nidwalden. Obligatory recruits' course of 48 hours.

Glarus. No obligatory school. The continuation schools are organised as (a) general, (b) industrial, (c) domestic. Attendance is optional. Higher grade pupils not enrolled. Instruction given in winter for 20 weeks. Summer courses permissible. Work must cease on weekdays at 9 p.m. On Sundays not more than two hours' instruction may be given, and that not during morning service. Caution money 3 francs per head. Fine for absence 50 centimes. After six absences pupil is expelled. Minimum salary for each hour per week of instruction 40 francs per course for men, 25 francs for women. Maximum number of pupils in a class 25. No fees. Free books.

Zug. Attendance obligatory between 17 and 19 years of age. Two winter courses from 1st November to 31st March, three hours per week. Communal School Board holds an examination at the end of the course. A member of School Board must inspect the work once a month. School Board sends an annual report to Cantonal Education Committee. Three days' obligatory course for recruits before enlistment.

Fine for absence, one franc. Punishment for breach of discipline may be fine or imprisonment.

School must be held on weekdays and in the daytime.

Freiburg. Obligatory schools for at least three winters. Course of 70 hours in each.

Obligatory recruits' revision course of ten hours before examination.

Attendance at continuation schools will in future be compulsory for girls in accordance with Act of May, 1904.

Solothurn. Obligatory school up to completed eighteenth year; three courses of 21 weeks and 3 hours per week since 1873. Optional courses for recruits.

Basel Town. No obligatory school. Optional courses free.

A bill was introduced in 1904 to make attendance compulsory for young men between the ages of 17 and 20. This bill did not pass.

Basel Land. Attendance obligatory for two years (17--18 years of age) for 17 weeks and 4 hours per week. Recruits' course of 12 hours optional. Instruction must be given on two separate days of the week and must conclude by 9 p.m.

Schaffhausen. Attendance obligatory for two years (17-18 years of age). Pupils who complete 8 standards at primary schools are exempt. Two courses of 13 weeks and 4 hours per week.

Appenzell-a-Rh. Attendance compulsory if the commune so decides. Attendance has been obligatory for boys in all communes since 1897. Two courses yearly of 60 hours each.

Appenzell-i.-Rh. Attendance compulsory for 3 courses of 20 weeks and 4 hours per week for all boys immediately on leaving the seven-standard primary school.

St. Gall. Attendance compulsory if commune so decides. In 1904 it was compulsory at 57 out of 123 schools.

Attendance at technical continuation schools (of which there are 31, 27 being open all the year round) is voluntary, unless prescribed in articles of apprenticeship.

Cantonal grants are paid to schools which give 50 hours of instruction per annum and hold an examination at end of course.

Grisons. Attendance compulsory if commune so decides. The continuation schools take pupils from leaving the primary school up to the end of their 17th year. Usual session twenty weeks, three meetings per week of $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours duration. No pupil admitted to continuation schools who has not obtained exemption from attendance at a primary school. Attendance must be maintained till the end of a session.

Two kinds of continuation school are recognised, obligatory and optional. The former is a school which all males must attend on leaving the primary school until they complete their eighteenth year. At the optional school attendance is compulsory for all, males and females, who enrol.

The Cantonal Treasury makes a grant of from 80 to 120 francs a month to obligatory schools, and one of from 60 to 80 francs to optional schools.

Aargau. Obligatory school; 3 courses of 80 hours; for young men between 17 and 19. Classes do not exceed 30. Work terminates at 7 p.m. Exemption can be gained.

Thurgau. Attendance obligatory for three sessions from 15th year. Thirteen weeks of 4 hours per session.

Ticino. Obligatory courses up to 18th year, from 180 to 240 hours spread over 3 or 4 years. Obligatory recruits' course 12 days and 4 hours per day.

Vaud. Obligatory school from 16 to 19 years of age. Thirteen weeks of 3 hours per session. Obligatory recruits' course of 6 hours per week for 20 weeks.

Valais. Obligatory school from 15 to 20 years. Four courses of 17 weeks and 6 hours per week. Obligatory

course for recruits, 30 periods of 2 hours before enrolment.

Neuchâtel. An annual examination is held at which all young men must present themselves on attaining the age of 17. The standard is little higher than the recruits' examination. Candidates who fail must attend classes for two winter sessions of 64 hours each. These classes are for the most part equivalent to those of a recruits' school.

Geneva. No compulsory continuation schools. Optional classes, 10 hours per week, for boys and girls.

Obligatory course for recruits who fail at the cantonal preliminary examination, 36 hours spread over five or six weeks.

SUMMARY.

From which it follows that: In 19 cantons attendance at the continuation schools is obligatory for boys; in 15 of these by vote of the canton (Zürich, Uri, Zug, Freiburg, Solothurn, Basel Town (for some apprentices), Basel Land, Schaffhausen, Appenzell-i. Rh., Aargau, Thurgau, Ticino, Vaud, Valais, Neuchâtel); in 4 by vote of the commune (Bern, Appenzell-a-Rh., St. Gall, Grisons).

In one canton (Freiburg) attendance is obligatory for girls as well as boys, and in Zürich and Basel Town for girl apprentices.

Obligatory recruits' courses are held in 10 cantons (Lucerne, Schwyz, Obwalden, Nidwalden, Zug, Freiburg, Ticino, Vaud, Valais, Geneva).

Optional courses (other than recruits' courses, and sometimes organised side by side with obligatory courses in the same canton) are to be found in 4 cantons (Glarus, St. Gall, Grisons and Geneva).

There are optional recruits' courses in 2 cantons (Solothurn and Basel Land).

Many reasons combine to make Switzerland the educational laboratory of Europe. The political constitutions

allow great freedom, and the administrative talents of the nation are directed towards education in the absence of large external interests. From the preceding pages the reader will learn that, throughout the Federation, great progress is being made with the continuation schools, and that the Swiss spare neither money nor effort in perfecting them. In Switzerland the deserving apprentice does not find his instruction left to the chance events which modify a daily routine, for continuation schools are always within reach. And, for their maintenance and success, he must thank the co-operation of the State, the employer, the trade union, and the teacher.

A. J. PRESSLAND.

CHAPTER XXI.

Continuation¹ Classes and Social Education in France.A. *Classes for young people and adults.*

With the exception of some attempts in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, (e.g., St. J.-B. de la Salle's in Paris in 1690) movements in the direction of classes for young people and adults dates from the Revolution. Rousseau and Condorcet had given expression to the idea; the Convention in 1792 and 1793, inspired by their theories, prepared numerous legislative proposals dealing with the subject; during the whole of the 19th century these theories were more or less put into practice. But the various forms of government which succeeded one another in France during this period had great influence on the development of the classes. Under the Empire the plans formed during the Revolution were entirely dropped; with the Restoration, however, they re-appeared. In 1816 the former pupils of the *École Polytechnique* at Metz opened public classes for working men. In 1820 and 1821 the Prefect of the Seine started the first two such classes for adults held in Paris, and during the next few years the number of such classes increased both in Paris and Metz. After the Revolution of 1830, the Government of July encouraged them; classes were started at Lyons and Mulhouse. In 1837 they numbered 1,586 with 36,964 students in attendance; in 1848, 6,913 with an attendance of 117,000. They were, however, immediately

1. The term "*post-scolaire*," which is best translated by "continuation," is used to designate the instruction given to young people above the compulsory school age and to adults. In France free compulsory public elementary education ends with the obtaining of the *Certificat d'études primaires* generally taken between 12 and 13 years of age.

affected by the political reaction: in 1850 their numbers went down; from 1851 to 1863 the Department of Public Instruction published no statistical information concerning the state of Primary Education, and only an absurdly small sum, 2,000 francs a year, was granted to this branch of the work. Under the liberal influence of the Second Empire, and thanks above all to the efforts of the then Minister of Public Instruction, Victor Duruy, the classes revived, and in 1869 their number had increased to 28,172 with an attendance of 800,000. The turmoil of the years 1870-1 stopped their progress, but the Third Republic paid special attention to the question of primary education; since the peace and the resumption of social life, laws and decrees have followed one after another, efforts have been multiplied, and the work, notwithstanding a temporary crisis, has continued to extend rapidly. In 1875 Monsieur Gréard, afterwards vice-rector of the University of Paris, published a scheme for the general organisation of Adult Classes (*Cours d'Adultes*); the Prefect of the Seine carried out his ideas in an order dated August 20th, 1877. On March 28th, 1882, the law making Primary Education compulsory was passed, and on July 22nd, 1884, a ministerial order was promulgated making regulations for *Cours d'Adultes* throughout the country. Notwithstanding this, the number of classes diminished considerably from 1884 to 1895, the figures being, 1883-4, 24,378; 1884-5, 9,338; 1894-5, 8,228. The reason for this may be found in the fact that experience had not yet pointed out the limited function of the Primary School. Everything had been hoped from compulsory attendance at school, and it was expected with an astonishing naiveté, that the education of the whole nation could be accomplished in a few years. The reality soon dissipated these illusions; the school went slowly on with its limited work, and the

necessity became more and more urgent of prolonging and completing this short period of instruction, which was proving itself to be so insufficient a preparation for life. In 1895-6 the number of *Cours d'Adultes* rose again to 15,778. According to the official report of Ed. Petit the number, in 1903-4, was 46,868 (30,209 men and boys, 16,659 for women and girls). In 1904-5 the number of courses had risen to 47,600. In addition, about 5,000 technical classes (*cours professionnels*) were organised by *Syndicats*, *Bourses du Travail*, etc., making a total of over 52,000 courses, with an attendance of nearly a million.

The organisation of these classes is quite simple. Under the July Monarchy, they could not be started without the authorisation of the central authority, but since the decree of January 11th, 1895, anyone who wishes may open a class provided he have the approval of the Mayor, the Prefect and the Academy Inspector. Under the Republic the classes have also been made more accessible to those for whom they are intended. The minimum age, which was fixed under Louis-Philippe (1836) at 15 for boys and 12 for girls, and was raised to 18 in 1850, has been lowered to 13 by the decree of January 13th, 1887. Nearly all the classes are for boys or girls only; mixed classes do not exist except in some of the large towns. The length and frequency of the class meetings which were at first left unregulated, and then fixed by the decree of July 22nd, 1884, at an hour and a half at least three times a week for not less than five months in the year, have again by the order of January 11th, 1895, been left to the decision of the local organisers, in order that local needs and the wishes of different categories of students may be the more easily met. It should be added that though there is a considerable movement of opinion in favour of compulsory attendance up to 17 years of age, there is at

present no legal obligation to attend the classes. Anyone comes who likes and attends as he likes. A scholar who has attended regularly receives simply a statement or certificate of the fact from the master, and these certificates are generally taken into account by employers. Occasional prize distributions, aided by the municipalities, also help to stimulate the interest of the scholars, and on the whole their attendance and work are satisfactory. The financial side of the question is of the greatest importance. Lighting and heating must, of course, be paid for, and it would be only just that the masters and mistresses who bear all the responsibility of the work should receive proper remuneration. But the scholars, accustomed to free education in the primary day schools, are unwilling to pay fees in the evening: ten years ago only the sum of 50,000 francs was realised from this source, and this figure diminishes year by year. The State grant, although there has lately been a slight increase, does not even now amount to more than 350,000 francs. Private subscriptions come to about the same sum. All this would be very insufficient without the subsidies given by the towns and departments—700,000 francs in 1865-6; 1,188,000 francs in 1895-6; 1,751,211 francs in 1903-4,—and without the devotion of the primary school teachers. The laws of 1867, 1882 and 1884 secured remuneration at the rate of not more than 150 francs, per course, per year, to every teacher who was willing to undertake this extra, voluntary work, but these payments were abolished by the decree of January 11th, 1895, which is still in force to-day. The Department of Public Instruction does all it can to forward continuation school work. Teachers who are active in evening classes receive from the Department either an extension of holiday, or letters of recommendation, or some purely honorary reward, such as congratulatory letters,

diplomas, medals, decorations, etc. Certain small subsidies are assigned by the municipalities for the payment of the teachers in continuation classes. But there is striking inequality in the distribution of these awards, and as many as thirty departments still refuse all help to the masters and mistresses who add continuation school work to their daily labour. There are even cases of teachers who are themselves obliged to defray the cost of heating and lighting. Is it surprising that they are asking that such a state of things shall be put an end to by the creation of a distinct and paid teaching staff for continuation schools? The difficulty is to decide on whom the duty of payment ought to be laid. The State, and even the towns, plead in excuse their already heavy budgets; perhaps the best hope is that the various voluntary associations and patronage societies should take over both the organisation and the financing of the classes. At the present moment the fate of the *Cours d'Adultes* depends upon the self-sacrifice of teachers who are either not paid at all or are badly paid for their extra work.

The Continuation Class (*Cours d'Adultes*) is usually held in the evening between 7 and 8-30 o'clock; it is open two or three times a week, and lasts from the autumn, or the beginning of winter, until Easter, that is, for from three to five months. Some of the masters organise summer courses on Sunday afternoons. "Half-an-hour is given to an informal talk on agriculture, history, geography, some point of common law, the events of the day, etc.; half-an-hour to regular study: spelling, composition, the writing of business letters, mental arithmetic, explanation of the principles of land valuation and taxation, making out bills and invoices, square and cubic measurements, the price of stocks, the organisation of savings banks . . . and so on with endless variety. The last half-hour, which is one of

semi-recreation, is devoted to reading, with explanations, or to singing."¹

Experience soon showed the necessity of dividing the *Cours d'Adultes* into (1) classes for the illiterate, (2) continuation classes proper (*cours complémentaires*), and (3) technical classes (*cours professionnels*), and this division was sanctioned by the Education Acts of 1882, 1884 and 1895. The slow growth of the first of these, the classes for the illiterate, is due to the attitude of the people themselves. The grown-up man is ashamed to own his ignorance, and will not go and sit again on a school bench. In the Central Provinces and the West (*Massif Central* and Brittany) there are regimental classes in the garrisons, under the direction of soldier-teachers, which make up, to a certain extent, for the grievous evasion of the law for compulsory attendance at school. More classes for women are needed in order to lessen the proportion of illiterates which is still very high amongst them. The object of the *Cours Complémentaires*, which may be compared to the Higher Primary Schools (*Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*), just as the classes for the illiterate correspond roughly to the primary schools proper (*Ecoles Primaires Élémentaires*), is to continue and develop the work of the primary school. This need seems to be best met by giving the scholars some idea of history, particularly of contemporary history, and of economic and colonial geography. Side by side with these general subjects, more exact instruction is given in other branches according to the needs of the scholars and their surroundings. In towns, it is found that classes in industrial drawing and arithmetic appeal for the most part to boys, while English, German, book-keeping, stenography and typewriting are more attractive subjects to women. In the country, agriculture holds the first place; then in

1. Ed. Petit, *Rapport sur l'Education Populaire en 1897-8*.

order of preference come geography, French composition, the metric system and science, rural law, hygiene, land-surveying, temperance instruction, etc. Almost everywhere, a certain number of classes in hygiene, domestic economy, the care of infants, cookery and needlework are organised for girls, and the number is increasing rapidly. Less than a thousand in 1894-5 the number of classes had increased to 14,341 in 1901-2, and, in 1902-3, to 15,354—an increase of a thousand in one year. For technical training special provision is made in the *Ecoles Professionnelles*¹ and the *Ecoles de Commerce et d'Industrie*,² but in addition to these State schools, the *Syndicats*, *Bourses du Travail* and various working men's organisations have opened 5,000 apprenticeship classes. It should be observed that the *Ecole Professionnelle* with its (often) old-fashioned methods, its stereotyped and theoretical teaching, yields disappointing results; employers and working men are equally loud in their complaints, the former on the ground that it turns out apprentices who do not know their business, the latter on the ground that when the pupils leave the school it is necessary to begin all over again and give them a practical knowledge of their trade. No body of men, it would seem, is better qualified to determine the technical needs of each trade than the workers themselves, and their *Syndicats* are well fitted to take upon themselves the work of organising practical classes for apprentices.

Moreover, the *Ecoles Professionnelles*, which are day schools, and the number of which is necessarily limited, can only accommodate a very small proportion of those needing a technical education. The interesting attempt

1. There are 12 *Ecoles Professionnelles* in Paris, 6 for boys and 6 for girls, mostly founded since 1884, all free, and each with at least 300 pupils.

2. There are 50 *Ecoles de Commerce et d'Industrie*, 42 for boys and 8 for girls, and their number is increasing every year.

which is being made in Paris, under the guidance of M. Jully, Inspector of Manual Instruction, to meet the need for a more widespread and accessible form of training for apprentices in the wood and iron industries, should be mentioned here. These *cours techniques* are held in the evenings and on Sunday mornings, and are conducted by artizan teachers. The leading idea of the experiment is to improve an already educated artizan class by helping them to a knowledge of the scientific principles underlying the practice of their various trades. This idea has been adhered to throughout, but the detailed organisation of the classes has been considerably modified by experience. From the first they have included lessons in geometry and industrial drawing, but it has been found necessary, on the one hand, to give more training in experimental science than was at first contemplated, and on the other, to adapt the practical manual work more exactly to the industrial needs of the different categories of students. This last was no easy matter but, under the guidance of M. Jully, the artizan teachers have attacked the problem and now each class is provided with a series of appropriate models and drawings which is added to constantly as new needs arise. Moreover, as the classes have grown, it has become necessary in some cases, to divide them definitely into sections, according to the trades of the students, and to provide each section with its own special equipment. On January 1, 1905, *cours techniques* had been organised in the manual training workshops of twelve Paris schools; there were 1,300 applicants for admission, of whom 300 had to be refused. According to M. Rocheron, assistant inspector of manual instruction, the success of these courses is largely due to the excellence of the teaching staff, "who, thanks to their careful training and to their steady enthusiasm, have been able to adapt the teaching to the

requirements of the different categories of students attending the classes. Much as they differ from one another, and adapted as they are to the needs of apprentices and artisans of various trades, different ages and unequal attainments, the technical classes are all animated by the same spirit and by a unity of aim and method which ensures their success, and which must be attributed to the careful preparation of the teaching staff. Every Thursday, the artisan teachers who have charge of the classes, receive from their inspector, M. Jully, a lesson in drawing, mechanics or geometry, which prepares them for their work both from the pedagogical and the trade point of view. Learners and teachers by turns, they are discouraged by no difficulty, for they are enthusiastically attached to the work. Having had personal experience of the difficulties with which the apprentices are struggling, they know better than anyone how useful and profitable the instruction can be. They spare neither trouble nor devotion in the interests of the classes. They are literally swamped by the number of students; some have as many as 60 in a class—an almost overwhelming number when the different trades and attainments of the pupils and the consequent impossibility of giving any collective instruction are remembered.”¹

B. *Libraries.*

An indispensable addition to the class is the library. Although the aim and organisation of the different libraries are identical, it may be convenient to distinguish between those which exist in the primary schools (public school popular libraries), and those which are independent of the school (municipal popular libraries and free libraries²).

1. See René Leblanc, *L'Enseignement professionnel en France au début du x^e Siècle* (Paris, Cornély, 1905), pp. 23–31.

2. The term “Free Library” is not used in the English sense, but means free from State or Municipal aid and control.

The idea of the first dates from 1860, and the regulations which still govern them, from 1862. According to the order of June 1st of that year, all public primary schools should be furnished with a lending library for scholars, adults and families. A few years later, a permanent central committee at the Ministry of Public Instruction was charged with the duty of compiling a list of recommended books for these libraries and it still continues its work. Part of the funds are also provided by Government, but it should be borne in mind that the sum allowed for this purpose is not only notoriously insufficient, but is getting less year by year—250,000 francs in 1884, 110,000 francs ten years later, and less than 100,000 francs to-day. The amount granted by the municipalities remains almost stationary at about 25,000 francs. A few societies, especially in the north of France, have been founded with the special object of assisting libraries (the *Sou des Adolescents*, the *Sou des Bibliothèques*, for example), but, in spite of this, the funds remain insufficient for their needs. The books of a school library are obtained from three sources: the State or the Ministry of Public Instruction, which furnishes text books and reading books; the funds voted by the *Conseils Généraux* or Municipalities; and lastly gifts by individuals, subscriptions, etc. With only these resources, it is not possible to make up a rich and varied collection, nor to renew the books as often as is desirable, nor to subscribe to reviews and periodicals which might refresh and renew the life of the library. Notwithstanding these unfavourable conditions, the number of school libraries has increased five-fold in thirty years, and the number of books and of loans ten-fold. In 1863 there were 8,356 libraries with 684,344 books; there are no statistics as to loans in 1863, but in 1882 the number was 1,337,156. In 1902 there were 43,411 libraries with 6,978,503 books and

8,082,936 loans. But we must not be deceived by these figures. "If we take into account the large towns which possess an average of more than 12 (school libraries), and the smaller towns with 5 or 6 etc., then it follows that there must be thousands of communes which are still without them. Moreover, we must reckon that, though there are only 36,000 communes in France, there are nearly 70,000 schools, which leaves nearly 30,000 without libraries."¹ The first popular libraries, unconnected with the schools, date from 1834. Since 1862, the Franklin Society, by serving as a centre of information and by means of its moral and financial support, has contributed very largely to the successful development of these libraries. At the present time, some receive a subsidy from Government, others are free and left entirely to their own resources. In 1874, they numbered 773, with 838,032 books. In less than thirty years these figures have increased more than three-fold. In 1902 there were 2,911 libraries with 4,166,417 volumes, without counting the 78 municipal libraries of Paris, the richest of all. Mention should also be made of certain technical and special libraries in the large towns. The Fornay Library in Paris, for instance, which was founded in 1886, possesses, besides a considerable number of works relating to the industrial arts, 4,905 models and 63,700 engravings, photographs and drawings. Unfortunately, this kind of library is still very little developed. Taking them all together, the popular libraries, whether subsidised or free, are all suffering from two main difficulties: insufficient funds make it impossible to buy books as often and in as large numbers as is desirable; and the relatively high postal rates prevent the starting of travelling libraries which might do something to make up for the scarcity of new books and of periodicals.

1. Ed. Petit, Rapport 1897-98.

C. Lectures and Public Readings.

Side by side with the class (*cours*), but less academic in character, is the lecture (*conférence*). The idea, and even the practice, goes back to the Revolution, but, together with the political regime, they both disappeared for more than half a century. Towards the close of the Empire, certain literary and political people started informal lectures (*causeries*) in one or two towns, and these, though more eloquent than instructive, were nevertheless highly successful. Following their example, the then Minister of Public Instruction, Victor Duruy, encouraged the giving of lectures by the regular teaching staff of the schools. In 1863, the lectures numbered only 20, but in 1866 had already increased to 1,003. In 1894-5 there were 10,379, and in 1903-4 as many as 110,842 with an audience of 3,000,000. This rapid success is explained in part by the use during the last ten years of lantern illustrations. In 1895, a central committee at the Ministry of Public Instruction obtained the privilege of free postage for the boxes of slides used in illustrating the lectures, on condition that these became the property of the State. This free carriage made the fortune of the system. The *Société Nationale des Conférences Populaires* and the *Société Havraise d'Enseignement par l'aspect* handed over their collections of slides, which thus formed the first nucleus of the large collection at the *Musée Pédagogique* in Paris. Since that time the work has been carried on at the *Musée* by officials specially appointed for the purpose. Instead of the somewhat haphazard purchases of former times, regular and methodical additions are made to the collection, and the slides are properly classified and catalogued. The grant of some thousands of francs (6,000 in 1903) would seem to be sufficient for the current expenses (replacing breakages and new acquisitions) of the

415 existing series, the circulation of which has increased from 8,859 in 1896-7 to 31,104 in 1903-4. Special mention should be made of the growing success of the lectures given in barracks. But, notwithstanding all the progress made, the work as a whole is far from being perfectly satisfactory. Where the sole responsibility for the lecture rests with the local school teacher, there is some risk, notwithstanding the formation of a central committee which suggests subjects and appropriate books, of his bringing with him into the lecture-room too much of the atmosphere of the schoolroom; if, on the other hand, the lecturer comes from outside and is not used to teaching, the probability is that he will not know how to accommodate himself to his audience. Moreover, all sorts of lectures, on different subjects, by different people, are too desultory to be of much educational value. To remedy these defects, the subjects should be arranged in courses, and there should be organised, side by side with the school teachers, a non-local body of lecturers, who do not belong to the regular teaching profession. Sufficient variety to meet the needs of different localities and audiences should then be allowed in the lectures.

The public reading serves a purpose very similar to that of the lecture. Although such readings have been given ever since 1848, it is only quite recently that they have been developed and have become general. Maurice Bouchor, the poet, conceived the idea of getting together artizan families in Paris in order to read and explain to them passages from, or the entire works of, our great writers. These readings, in which one or more persons take part, have had such a rapid success that permanent societies of readers (men and women) have been established. Tours are made in all parts of the provinces, and the reading is gaining ground even in rural districts

which have hitherto been completely indifferent to literature. The same plan is carried out in hospitals for the benefit of the patients; indeed the work is advancing with great strides. The most popular subjects are, for lectures: geography and travels and contemporary history; for readings: Molière, Victor Hugo, Edgar Quinet, Michelet and the modern novelists and dramatists.

D. *Societies for the Education of the People.*

It would not be right to speak of the classes and lectures without giving credit to the various private societies for the initiative they have taken in the work. But these societies are so numerous and so various that, notwithstanding the interest attaching to them, we must be content, within the limits of this article, to mention only the most influential and the most exceptional amongst them. Their history corresponds to that of other democratic institutions: founded at the beginning of the century, they remained practically stationary until the end of the Second Empire, occupying themselves, during this first half century of their existence, in increasing facilities for elementary instruction and in reducing the number of illiterate persons. With the impetus given by Victor Duruy, they entered upon a new path and made it their aim to develop technical education; and this tendency was encouraged by the education laws of 1881-2. During the last few years, the idea of social education seems to be slowly gaining ground amongst them. The oldest of these societies appears to be the *Société pour l'Instruction Élémentaire*, established by Lazare Carnot in 1815. At the time of its foundation, it helped to introduce and spread the Lancastrian system in France, to organise the teaching of singing, of gymnastics, of geometrical drawing and of

geography and national history. Since 1865, this society has devoted itself chiefly to the education of young girls of the poorer classes. In 1902-3, its various classes—general, technical, art applied to industry, modern languages—had an attendance of 4,000 girls. The *Association Polytechnique* is the child of the Revolution of 1830. After the struggle, certain old students of the *Ecole Polytechnique* went to the temporary hospitals to hold classes for their companions in the fight, the wounded artisans. The growth of the work from these modest beginnings is shown in the following figures: in 1835, 24 classes were held each week, in 1880 the number had increased to 285, and in 1903 there were 850 classes comprising 17,000 lessons and attended by 305,000 persons. By means of fourteen affiliated societies, its work has been spread into the provinces and a general union of polytechnics is in course of formation. The *Association Philotechnique* is only a branch of the preceding, established as a separate society in 1848. At that time it had 13 classes: in 1900 the number had increased to 714, and in 1902 the attendance was 13,000. The courses are for the most part technical or trade: typography, dressmaking and millinery, cutting out for tailors, the strength of materials, etc. It organises educational lectures for its teachers, and readings, visits to workshops and museums, excursions, travelling scholarships (for the study of modern languages), for its students. With its affiliated provincial societies it has already realised the idea of a general union of philotechnics. The *Société d'Enseignement Moderne* is making rapid progress. It consists of 54 sections with 726 classes and 14,211 students. To it belongs the credit of starting colonial sections, musical sections, sections for automobilism, a school of stenography, etc. The *Union*

Française de la Jeunesse is responsible for 479 classes with an attendance of 9,070, not to mention either lectures or visits to manufactories. It has started a shooting section and classes in hygiene and first-aid. The building section is attended by artisans. The *Association Philomathique* has 480 classes with 7,500 students. It has opened a school for naval engineers, and has organised agricultural and horticultural classes in government barracks in Paris; it has started a bureau to give free legal advice, and three free hospitals. But it is difficult to find space to mention even the most interesting of these organisations, which rival one another in good works of all kinds. Amongst those of a special character mention should be made of the *Société Académique de Comptabilité* with its three centres—Paris, Marseilles and Valenciennes—and its 59 “faculties,” containing nearly 3,000 pupils. The *Société Nationale pour la Propagation des Langues Étrangères* has 47 classes, with 2,000 regular students and 3,000 others in more or less regular attendance; it organises international correspondence, conversation classes and travelling scholarships. The *Union Démocratique pour l'Éducation Sociale* arranges lectures and concerts in hospitals; the *Société populaire des Beaux Arts* provides the schools which belong to it with engravings and with negatives for lantern illustrations of the history of art. The *Société pour l'Éducation Sociale* “has for its object to bring about a better understanding, both as regards education and future employment, between the school and the various organisations for after-school education, and the workingmen's *syndicats*.”¹ The Bourbouze Laboratories are open on Sunday mornings to apprentices and artisans, etc., etc. The *Association des Instituteurs pour l'Éducation et le*

1. Ed. Petit, Rapport 1902-3.

Patronage de la Jeunesse deserves special notice, with its 15,133 members, 12,036 of whom are scholars. It has started shooting galleries and shooting competitions; but its chief claim to attention is its work in connection with children's country holidays (1,382 boys and girls were sent to the sea-side in 1902) and with the placing out of apprentices.

All the foregoing refers to Paris alone. The provinces, besides the branches affiliated to the central societies, boast nearly 700 different societies of their own. Some of these are older than those of Paris. The *Société libre d'Emulation du Commerce et de l'Industrie de la Seine Inférieure* traces its origin back to the last years of the 18th century, and from the 18th century also dates the *Philomathique de Bordeaux*, which, not content with the 4,000 students in its technical classes, took the initiative in the foundation of the *Ecole Supérieure de Commerce et d'Industrie* in 1874. The *Société d'Enseignement professionnel du Rhône*, which has grown steadily since its foundation, had 156 classes and 7,162 regular students in 1902. It has 32 sewing and dressmaking classes, classes in Esperanto, etc. Amiens and Rouen are especially active. Only six departments, four of which are in the *Massif Central*, are quite without any sort of educational society. It is not possible to close this list, which must in any case of necessity be far from complete, without pointing out the important part which has been played in the midst of all this rivalry in good works by the *Ligue de l'Enseignement*. Founded in 1866, in imitation of a Belgian Society, by a man whose name will never be forgotten by the French democracy, Jean Macé, it has now celebrated the three thousandth addition to its list of affiliated branches, the number of which has risen to 3,050. It is responsible for the distribution of

1,869 series of slides, *e.g.*, 43,725 slides and 51,365 loans from October, 1902, to the end of March, 1903. It organises both lectures and clubs for soldiers (*Foyers du Soldat*, temperance cafés, etc.). A recently formed section deals exclusively with questions relating to female patronage societies—their establishment, growth, etc. But, in the opinion of the writer, the great merit of the league is that for the last twenty years or more—since 1881—it has organised annual congresses which, besides giving encouragement to its own active members, have directed public attention to important and essential questions of public instruction and social education, and have thus led to further investigation and to a continuous improvement in that after-school education which is the indispensable complement of the primary school. Another service which it has rendered to the cause of popular education is that of having proclaimed with the double authority which it derives from the number and permanence of its institutions, and from the political character of one of its Directors, M. Léon Bourgeois (formerly Minister of Public Instruction and President of the Chamber of Deputies) the fundamental principle underlying all these democratic undertakings, the principle of solidarity which, together with the modern idea of justice, must constitute the basis of the society of the future.

To ensure the future prosperity of these various organisations several reforms seem desirable. Although they are generally prosperous¹ their number is increasing too fast for strength and permanence. They need to draw together and to strengthen their present position, in a word, to con-

1. Many of these societies have an annual income of 25,000 to 30,000 frs., while some reach 50,000, or even 100,000 frs. The *Ligue de l'Enseignement*, without counting its provincial branches, has an income of three and a half million francs.

centrate their forces. Moreover, their future development will depend largely upon the welcome which they are prepared to give to modern ideas of social reconstruction, and upon their attitude towards the belief that it is *education* rather than *instruction* that the people need; also upon the part which they are prepared to allow the artisans themselves to take, through their organisations, in the work of technical education. Whatever the future may be—and it rests partly in their own hands to determine it—the past must command our admiration. During the last hundred years over 2,000¹ societies have come into existence, and have covered France with their ramifications, extending everywhere and contriving to adapt themselves to divers local needs, with a constantly increasing volume of effort and a corresponding subdivision of work. Much remains to be done, the work is neither complete nor perfect, but the present seems to guarantee a future, and, however that may be, the figures quoted above may serve to give some idea of a great but unassuming work of which France has a right to be proud.

Before leaving the subject of classes and lectures, two failures should be noted. The first is that of the free classes opened at the Hotel de Ville by the Municipality of Paris in 1889. The aim was to give higher primary instruction, the subjects being history, anthropology and biology. A small number of students, about a hundred, responded to the appeal, but they were all clerks or teachers, not artisans. After ten years of miserable existence, political events—the nomination in 1900 of a municipal council which was nationalist and unfavourable to the idea—gave them the final blow. It does not seem likely that under any circumstances they would have had any great success. The other failure, more definite and

1. The number in 1903-4 was 2,228.

complete, is that of the University Extension movement. Both the name and the system came from England. Plants and animals, when transplanted into new surroundings, have to adapt themselves to the fresh conditions and modify themselves according to new needs, but it was thought possible to transplant a foreign institution into France just as it stood, without any change. The result was a foregone conclusion and was not long in coming. The French Universities, created by the Act of July 10th, 1896, did not begin to take up University Extension work until 1898 and 1899. This was just the time of the foundation of the first *Universités Populaires* which grew rapidly during 1899 and 1900. This second movement, which owed its origin to political events, entirely killed whatever timid and isolated attempts were made in the direction of University Extension.

E. School Savings Banks, Mutualité Scolaire, Patronage Societies, Petites A.

The organisations of which we have hitherto been speaking, although not always purely scholastic in character, agree, nevertheless, in giving to instruction, properly so-called, an exclusive or at least a preponderating place in their programmes. Those with which we are now about to deal can only be regarded as complementary to the school if we attribute to the latter a wider rôle than that of the mere dispenser of learning, and regard it as part of the larger social life of the nation and its work as a preparation for that life. It is on these grounds that it seems desirable to include here some mention of the various efforts made to encourage thrift, mutual aid (*mutualité*) and association.

England was the first country to start school savings

banks. In France the movement grew slowly during the 19th century, and it is only during the last thirty years that it has made any real progress. The highest point was reached in 1887, when the number of banks had risen to 22,642, with 483,727 depositors and 12,773,879 francs deposited. Since then the number has begun to decrease, and they seem to be giving way to an institution of a broader character—School Mutual Societies (*Mutualité scolaire*). In 1881, M. Cavé, one of the judges of the commercial court of the Seine, founded a bank, in the XIXth arrondissement of Paris, into which each child paid a weekly sum of 10 centimes. The 5 francs 20 centimes thus subscribed yearly was to go towards furnishing help in case of illness and a provision for old age. The society prospered and ten years later had a capital of 87,000 francs. A few others were started in imitation of it, but the movement as a whole made hardly any progress. A whole campaign of lectures on the subject of mutual aid was necessary before the nature of the work was really understood and the opposition disarmed. These mutual aid societies, the “*petites Cavé*” as they soon came to be called, only numbered 10 in 1895–6, but by 1903–4 their number had risen to 3,991, with 620,000 members and nearly four million francs of deposits. Various systems are in use amongst them: some have separate accounts for each member and give simply an old-age pension; some combine the system of separate accounts with a common fund; others have simply a common fund, and keep the two sides of their work (mutual aid and old-age pensions) entirely separate. Some of these societies are already federated by departments, but a National Federation is still only a dream. There is great need for such societies amongst young girls who have just left the primary school, but so far, though they are

spoken of, none have actually been established. On the other hand the State children (*enfants assistés*) are beginning to join the *Petites Cavé*. Mutual societies amongst apprentices and amongst soldiers are also things of the future. Indeed, though some progress has been made and results achieved, the idea, in spite of all endeavours to spread it, makes way slowly and with difficulty. Notwithstanding this, the movement has assumed various and interesting forms in different parts of the country. In the Vosges and the Jura the societies undertake re-forestation. "During 1900, fifty *Petites Caré* in the Jura planted nearly 200,000 forest trees and have brought a vast extent of country under cultivation."¹ This example has been followed in the Departments of Ain, Doubs and Ardèche. The Society of Fontenay le Comte, and the great school mutual society of La Lande (with its 13,139 members, of whom two-thirds are girls) give dowries to their members, and the former also makes provision for orphans. With the same objects in view, relief funds are organised, and reductions of premium in the case of large families are allowed. In Indre, finding employment for members is undertaken as well as mutual aid. *

It is easy to describe the working of the various mutual societies, but the definition of "patronage" is singularly difficult. The word itself has been borrowed from the sphere of Catholic activity—for the Catholics were not only the first in the field but are still in the forefront of the movement.² The word is not well-chosen, as it over-emphasises the idea of guidance being forced upon young people by their elders. Moreover, the same word is used to describe organisations which differ very much

1. Ed. Petit, *Rapport* 1902-3.

2. See pp. 628-32.

one from another. It may safely be said, however, that one feature common to all is the gathering together, either by people who do not belong to the school or by members of the teaching staff, of youths or girls of from thirteen to twenty years of age, or older, with a view to providing them with healthy recreation while at the same time developing a co-operative spirit amongst them. Sometimes classes for music, singing, etc., which are partly recreative in character, are added. To be complete, a patronage society ought to be divided into classes for the care of little children and associations of young apprentices. This division is not always made, and difficulties are consequently felt on both sides. The *Association des Instituteurs pour l'Education et le Patronage de la Jeunesse* has concerned itself specially with patronage societies. In 1899 it had started twenty-one, with 3,000 pupils and, through its affiliated societies, was exerting its influence over as many as 9,000 persons. It organises classes for physical development, gymnastics, swimming, shooting, and has started children's country holidays, partly free, partly paying. Some patronage societies in Paris and Bordeaux have already joined together to form a central federation. But the most active and prosperous part of the movement is that which concerns itself with work amongst girls; and it is also here; as we shall see, that the task to be accomplished is greatest and that Catholic efforts are also most extensive. Through the initiative of a ladies' committee of the *Ligue de l'Enseignement* and of a recently formed association, *La Coopération féminine* (founded 1900), several new societies for girls have been started both in Paris and in the provinces. There is as much variety amongst them as amongst the corresponding patronage societies for boys, but, as a whole, they differ from the

latter chiefly in being more given to insurance for various objects, such as providing clothes for the poor and help in case of illness. Amongst societies of this kind one of the most original is the *Œuvre du Troisième* which was founded in Paris in 1899, and has spread rapidly in the provinces. It supplies to its members, after they have been at work a few years, 72 articles of underclothing for quite a small sum—30 to 50 francs. These girls' patronage societies also arrange classes in hygiene, including in one instance at least (*Aubervilliers*) training in the care of children and housewifery for girls who have to look after their little brothers and sisters, and in cooking; they also provide country holidays for some of their members. Many exert themselves to find places for the girls. Others try to interest the parents of the school children, both while the latter are at school and afterwards, by means of entertainments of various kinds. The *Cercle des Parents* at Rheims is an example of this kind. In short, a very wide field of activity is open to these societies. Patronage is work which calls for constant care and personal devotion and example, and depends less for its success on the good-will of school masters and mistresses than on efficient help from outside; yet, it is just this outside help which is so often wanting. The growth of the movement (in 1896, 437 societies, 34 in Paris and 403 in the provinces; in 1903-4, 2,125), which is due in part to the new societies for girls, must not make us blind to the true state of the case: the grants in aid are scanty;¹ work carried on exclusively by the efforts of school teachers lacks both the breadth and the social character which are necessary to true

1. The grants in aid amounted in 1899-1900 to less than 100,000 francs in Paris for 15,931 members; to half that amount at Lyons and Bordeaux for 7,255 and 5,326 members respectively; and at Lille, for 10,889 members, to less than 20,000 francs.

success; and, finally, the development of the movement is slow and lags far behind the urgent needs of the situation.

School mutual societies are associations amongst children attending the primary schools, 'membership' of which is often continued even after they leave school; patronage societies are arranged by others for the benefit of the young people; the *Petites A*, as they are called, or associations of former pupils of the primary schools, are started by the young people themselves for themselves. The idea of connecting the *Petites A* with the schools came from the *lycées* and colleges, but except for a few scholarships and prizes these middle-class societies do not trouble themselves with anything beyond social meetings. The old scholars of the *Écoles Normales Primaires* (for men teachers), and those of the *Écoles Primaires Supérieures*, had formed themselves into associations about 1880. Although started later, the *Petites A* have shown more capacity for growth and greater activity; 622 in 1895-6, their number had grown in 1903-4 to 6,252, the boys' societies being about twice as numerous as those for girls. The tendency is to organise according to communes, cantons and departments, and by this means the influence of the societies is increased. The Federation of Haute-Garonne opened, in 1902-3, a free competition in art and industry. Those of Saône et Loire and of the town of Rheims endeavour to secure employment for their members. Everywhere they encourage and help forward the work of the school. Their aim is to co-operate with the similar societies of the *lycées* and colleges in order to secure that a better qualified and larger proportion of their members shall pass on to the secondary schools. They have in view one vast national federation uniting the district federations. Their funds are provided by the

members' subscriptions which are rarely under three francs a year. Paris and Lille have each an income of about 200,000 francs, the former with 35,886 members, the latter with 60,604; Toulouse, Poitiers, Bordeaux and Caen had each more than 15,000 members in 1899-1900. With these funds the *Petites A* arrange classes—principally in art and physical training, but sometimes also in book-keeping, modern languages, domestic economy, housewifery and the care of infants—and also amusements and various organisations for mutual help. Besides encouraging games in the open air (skittles, football, etc.), country rambles and excursions, every *Petite A* likes to give dramatic entertainments, and the members are first the scene-painters and then the actors in the piece to be represented. That there should sometimes be faults of taste and a tendency to burlesque is not very surprising amongst young people whose artistic faculty has been little developed either by the primary school or the workshop. But the performances appeal to the younger members and to parents, and are a means of drawing closer the bonds of good fellowship. The younger members also benefit by the gifts of books and pictures, the school restaurants, the scholarships, the placing out in situations (though this branch of the work needs developing), the patronage societies and country holidays. For the older members the societies provide help when the time comes for compulsory military service; help toward rent; help in time of illness and when out of work. All share in the mutual societies. Some of the *Petites A* are beginning to carry out the co-operative idea, and we find examples of this in the co-operative agricultural works to be seen in various parts of France, in the transformation of swamps into allotment gardens at Saint Maurice (Somme), in the reforesting work in the Jura and in the

co-operative bakery which has been started at Lorient. Before leaving the subject of *Petites A*, we must notice the part taken by the girls' associations. The Thursday and Sunday meetings, which are a kind of embryo *Petite A* for girls, are the occasion not only for music, games and dancing, but for cutting out, sewing and cooking. "In more than a hundred *Petites A* for girls, in Paris, Havre, Draguignan, Agen, Valenciennes, Cette, Aubervilliers, it has become the custom for the elder girls to make dresses for those of the new comers who are in poor circumstances."¹ By means of this threefold influence of the class, of recreation and of mutual aid, a new democracy, conscious of itself and of its powers, is gradually being formed. True, it still lacks many necessary qualities, and the work is open to many criticisms of detail, but it is alive, and in many directions its future is rich in possibilities.

Hitherto, we have spoken only of associations connected more or less directly with the school and always, or nearly always, showing the influence of the school teacher. We now come to independent and autonomous institutions — the People's Universities (*Universités Populaires*).

F. *The Universités Populaires*.²

None of the preceding organisations have had such a rapid growth followed by such a sudden check as

1. Ed. Petit, Rapport 1897-8.

2. It seems to be impossible, at the present time, to collect full information concerning all the U.P. in France, and for the following reasons: many of them had not, by the end of 1903, sent information concerning their work to the Secretary of the Federation of U.P. and many of them are not mentioned in the pamphlets given in the list of authorities at the end of this article. The latter take us down to the end of the first six months of 1901, but a number of U.P. have been founded since that time, and those which were then in existence are bound, by the very fact of their continuance, to have undergone some change and modification. The only means of following the later development of the movement are the notices which appear in the *Coopération des Idées*, the monthly magazine of the U.P. of the same name (Paris,

the *Universités Populaires*; none perhaps have owed their origin to a more sincere enthusiasm and none have been exposed to more searching criticism or have suffered a more rapid discouragement. Yet, during the last four or five years the *Universités Populaires* (U.P. as they are commonly called) have spread into all parts of France and, notwithstanding the crisis through which the movement is now passing, a very large number of them are sure to live and to continue their work. It seems desirable, therefore, to explain in some detail the origin and development of these institutions, to point out in what respects they differ from one another, what results have already been accomplished, what are their weaknesses and what their legitimate hopes.

Unfortunately, it is not an easy task, nor even perhaps a possible one, to give any general idea of the U.P. as a whole. We must distinguish, in the first place, between Paris and the provinces, not for the sake of a mere arbitrary classification, but because of the very nature of the case. Indeed, the U.P. of Paris and of the provinces have such different characteristics, there is such a wide divergence between them, that we should almost be justified in placing them in entirely separate

XIth arr :) and the information which is occasionally published by the *Association Ouvrière*, a weekly journal. The *Bulletin des U.P.*, the organ of the U.P. Society, has ceased to appear. Moreover it must be remembered that, in the case of organisations for social education, still more than in the case of teaching societies, it is not only, or even chiefly, the details of organisation that matter, or the working of the different parts of the machine, but the spirit of the members and the influence of the group. On this account it will always be difficult to get together accurate information as to the part played by the U.P., nothing being so difficult to measure or estimate exactly as the influence and bearing of social work.

For the purposes of this article inquiries have been made and information received concerning about half the U.P. of Paris and the suburbs, and two-thirds of those in the provinces.

categories. Those of the suburbs of Paris, again, have features peculiar to themselves, and cannot properly be classified either with those of Paris, from which they are differentiated by their environment and the conditions of their existence, or with those of the provinces, although perhaps they resemble the latter more nearly than the former. They form a sort of connecting link between the two main classes. Moreover, besides these main divisions, there are smaller differences, caused by environment, which must be taken into account. In Paris itself, the character of the several *arrondissements* varies very much: those of the centre (Ist and IInd) are inhabited mainly by tradespeople and their employees; those of the circumference, at the south and east (XIIIth, XIVth, XVth, XVIIIth, XIXth, XXth) by artisans; at the west (VIIth and XVIth, Passy, Auteuil) by the aristocracy. These different elements cannot fail to have their influence on the nature and development of the U.P. But it is in the provinces that such influences make themselves chiefly felt: there the great natural features of the country, the nature of the industries, commerce or agriculture of each district, the aptitudes and needs of the people, are so many factors making for a fundamental differentiation according to local groups. It is not possible to disengage from all this variety either one uniform type of U.P. for the whole of France, or even a number of representative types; nor is there space to include mention of all the U.P., from the small associations in hamlets of 200 souls to the large societies in towns of several hundred thousand inhabitants. All that can be done is to point out certain characteristics common to them all, and to describe in detail a certain number of institutions which are particularly interesting either on account of the

vitality or the originality of their work. But even such a choice presents difficulties; for it must be evident to anyone who considers the subject that there may be U.P. whose field of work seems limited and which do not attract public attention by any specially interesting organisations, but which may be doing more active and important work than some other institutions larger and more powerful, perhaps, but animated by a less enthusiastic spirit and lacking the same clear perception of their particular tasks. We must always bear in mind that the work of the smaller and more obscure societies is as necessary to the well-being of the whole as that of the larger and better known organisations.

What is a *Université Populaire*? The following is the official definition, authorised by the Secretary of the Society of U.P. in his report of Feb. 28th, 1900: "It is a secular association which has for its object the development of the higher education of the people, which seeks to further the mutual education of citizens of every condition, which provides places of meeting to which the worker can come when his day's task is ended, to learn, to rest and to amuse himself."¹ The U.P. were nearly all founded during the years 1899 and 1900. Some few are of earlier date, but, though the objects of these earlier institutions were practically the same, they were called by other names. Thus we find that in Paris, as early as 1884, 1886 and 1891, there were lectures and study-clubs which may be regarded as the first beginnings of the movement. But, leaving these on one side, the real veterans amongst the Paris U.P. would seem to be the artisans' societies of Montreuil-sous-Bois (in the suburbs), started in November, 1895, by a cabinet maker, Emile Méreaux, and developed into a U.P. in July, 1898;

1. Bulletin des U.P., No. 1, p. 6.

and the *Coopération des Idées*, which was started by G. Deherme, a man who took perhaps a more active part than any other single individual in the movement for the foundation of U.P. As early as 1886, he had begun to organise social meetings for the people, and in 1894 he founded a newspaper, the *Coopération des Idées* (converted into a monthly review in 1896), and in 1898 gave the same name to the U.P. which was opened in the Faubourg St. Antoine on May 1st of that year. Certain other of the Paris institutions go back as far as 1897 (e.g. *l'Enseignement Mutuel*, XVIIIth arrondissement) or to the first few months of 1899 (e.g. *l'Emancipation*, XVth arrondissement, and the *Fondation Universitaire de Belleville*) and certain provincial U.P. (Beauvais, Montpellier, Rennes) to 1898, but there are quite a large number which have only come into existence since 1900. The growth of the movement since the latter date is shown in the following table:—

Date.	Number of U.P.'s in					Total.	
	Paris.	Suburbs of Paris.			Provinces.		
1900	12	...	6	...	21	...	39
1901	21	...	16	...	56	...	93
1902	24	...	19	...	75	...	118
1903	24	...	19	...	95	...	138

In February, 1900, a U.P. Society was formed with the title of *Société pour l'Enseignement supérieur populaire et l'Education mutuelle*, and a *Bulletin* was started. There is also a Federation of U.P., which contains about forty Paris societies and hopes to gain the support of those in the provinces. The first Congress of U.P. was held in Paris on May 22nd, 1904.

The Paris U.P.

In Paris the initiative in the matter of the foundation of U.P. came in some cases from members of the University, professors and students, in others from working-

men and workingmen's *syndicats*. Examples of the first are the *Union Mouffetard*, Vth arr., the *Solidarité*, XIIIth arr., and the *Fondation Universitaire de Belleville*, XIXth arr.; examples of the second are to be found in the XIIth and XVIIth to XXth arrondissements and in some of the suburbs. The funds are derived from the members' subscriptions, which are fixed at from 50 to 75 centimes a month, or from 6 to 9 francs a year, and from donations. But rents are so high in Paris that the subscriptions have never covered expenses, and it is only through the generosity of a few benefactors that it has been possible to carry on the work. Donations are becoming fewer and smaller year by year; subscriptions do not increase though the expenses remain about the same, and the consequent financial difficulties make the situation of the Paris U.P. a very critical one. Those of the suburbs suffer from the same difficulty, but in a lesser degree. The U.P. of the Faubourg St. Antoine is almost the only one --if not the only one-- which can show a satisfactory balance-sheet with some thousands of francs in hand (5,067 francs on February 1st, 1904). Some have sought a way out of the difficulty in the establishment of a bar (Belleville) or a refreshment room (Nanterre), or a co-operative restaurant (*Emancipation*, XVth arr.). Both from the point of view of raising money and of social education these attempts are much more hopeful than the usual means adopted to remedy the evil, viz., increasing the amount of subscriptions, collections, extra payment for seats at entertainments, etc. But even so, the *Université Populaire* of Paris and the suburbs is struggling against financial difficulties for which the remedies hitherto proposed seem quite inadequate. If the institution is to be a permanent one,

some stronger measures will have to be adopted: either it must itself start a co-operative society or must be directly connected with 'one already in existence. This last plan has already been tried in some instances. Thus the *Fraternelle* (U.P. of the IIIrd arr.) shares its premises with a co-operative society and various *syndicats* and political organisations; the U.P. of the XIVth arr. shares in the same way with the Engineers' *Syndicat*; the *Foyer de la Ménagère* at Batignolles (XVIIIth arr.), and the *Semaillès* at Belleville (XIXth arr.), are housed by co-operative societies, and others in the suburbs have followed their example.

Most of the U.P., both in Paris and the provinces, have organised classes, lectures, dramatic performances, concerts, excursions, rambles—in fact, various institutions for mutual improvement and recreation.

Classes, properly so-called, are not common in Paris. The most numerous are those in modern languages—principally English—in hygiene, including hygiene and cookery under the direction of a doctor at the *Solidarité* (XIIIth arr.), and hygiene for women and the care of children—taken by ladies—at the *Education Sociale* at Montmartre (XVIIIth arr.); in music and various accomplishments, including at the *Coopération des Idées*, the mother university of the Faubourg St. Antoine, violin, piano, singing and mandolin, dramatic diction and declamation, drawing and modelling, and at the *Maison Commune* (XIXth arr.), drawing and needlework for girls and women and recitation for men. There are also well attended classes in photography. Sometimes a laboratory is attached to a class as at the *Coopération des Idées* (XIIth arr.). Fencing is regularly taught at the *Coopération des Idées* and at the *Fondation Universitaire de Belleville*. But, taken altogether,

these attempts are not numerous, the class does not seem able to attract a regular body of students, and it is often found necessary to turn it into a lecture. It should be noted that, in spite of their connection with working men's organisations—*sindicats* and co-operative societies—the Paris U.P. have not yet organised any technical classes, and do not seem favourably inclined towards this branch of teaching. The only exception seems to be the classes in cutting-out at the U.P. of *Pré St. Gervais* in the suburbs.

Groupes d'études and lectures are more successful than regular classes. *Groupes d'études*, or series of lectures on the same subject, are most often found in those U.P. where the influence of the teaching profession is strongest, as at the *Union Mouffetard*, the *Solidarité* and the *Fondation Universitaire de Belleville*. The *Union Mouffetard*, which owed its origin to the joint action of the pupils of the *Ecole Normale Supérieure* and a temperance society, retains to a marked degree its original university character. The teaching is methodical and regular; lectures are held there every evening on some special subject connected with physical or natural science, literature, history and the history of art, philosophy, or some economic or trade question; its library consisted in 1901 of 2,500 volumes in addition to periodicals and newspapers. The *Solidarité*, which arose from a connection between the professors of the Sorbonne and certain artisans, offers very much the same subjects, with the addition of geography. The *Fondation Universitaire de Belleville* is unique in character. It was started in imitation of the English University Settlements, and at first adopted the plan of residents who lived at the university and undertook the general supervision of its work. But after a trial of two years the plan was given up, as the practical

utility of residents, whose only business consisted in helping at lectures, etc., was considered doubtful. But the study circles, with lectures and discussions on a given subject, like the Elizabethan and Shakespeare Societies of Toynbee Hall, have been kept up, the most flourishing being the Philosophy Circle. Indeed the tendency at this university seems to be towards the study of intellectual questions divorced from their practical applications. It is U.P. of this sort, and particularly the last named, which come nearest to the University Extension ideal. In other quarters the lectures are often far from having this coherence and sequence, neither lecturers, professors nor students come to them with the same regularity and the personnel of the audience changes oftener. Of the lectures generally it may be said that they are rarely held more than two or three times a week, that they attract audiences of from 20 to 50, that they last from an hour to an hour and a half (8-30 or 9 to 10 p.m.), and are either single or in very short courses. In Paris the most popular subjects are history, geography and travels, natural history, literature and, to a certain extent, social questions, such as hygiene, law, and working-men's organisations in France, in Germany, in England and the United States. The problems and difficulties of political and social life also provide material for informal talks at which the discussion is more within the reach of the audience. The discussion of topics suggested by the lecturers is, it must be owned, rare with these audiences, but, on the other hand, it must be remembered that the whole tone of the *conférence* is less that of a solemn and prepared lecture than of a familiar and intimate talk. Lectures on art and music are popular, and lead straight from theory to practice. How is it possible to lecture adequately on

music or singing without giving illustrations of what is described by means of songs and chamber music? These in their turn give rise to fresh explanations, and the first step is taken towards securing a series of musical recitals at which classical music can be discreetly introduced and may gradually achieve popularity. Thus the lecture is yielding place to music; not, however, to the isolated and occasional concert, but to musical gatherings which have an influence on the social life of the students. Again, how can lectures on architecture and sculpture be enjoyed without illustration? Lectures on the history of art must perforce make use of lantern illustrations, but such illustrations, even when they are good, well chosen and well explained, can never take the place of a sight of the masterpieces themselves. Moreover, Paris is exceptionally rich in examples of this form of art. Not only are her museums and galleries very numerous, but the city itself is full of artists' studios and of monuments of architecture and sculpture. The Parisian public, too, seems to have a particularly keen appreciation of these forms of art, and we should expect therefore to find, as is actually the case, that expeditions are organised to museums, churches, cemeteries, ancient and modern buildings and statues. But artistic feeling and taste are the outcome of a long education and must depend on time for their development. A single expedition of this sort, even a series of such visits, unless accompanied by explanation and criticism, is of very little use. What is wanted is a complete artistic education. Various attempts, outside the U.P., have been made in this direction. One of the most active associations is *l'Art pour Tous*, which, though it started in a very humble way, has now 2,000 members and receives a grant of public money. It organises regular lectures in the

museums of Paris and the neighbourhood, arranges popular concerts, has special children's sections and possesses an organ of its own, the *Revue de l'Art pour Tous*. But the influence of art-teaching would be very much limited if it had to do only with the great masterpieces which are shut up in museums. Art should not be outside our everyday life, but should penetrate and colour it, and the object of an artistic education should be not so much to awaken appreciation of pictures and statues already known and classified, as to develop a taste for the beautiful in the smallest things of everyday life. Already a few U.P. are exerting themselves to decorate their dull and bare premises with reproductions of the masterpieces of sculpture. But this is not enough: life should be beautiful not only in places of public meeting but in every detail which concerns the home and the individual.

In the same way the lecture may lead insensibly to the theatre. In a talk on a great writer, the lecturer, like the musical or artistic critic, naturally gives his audience examples of the beauty of the passages or works which he holds up for their admiration; reading aloud becomes necessary, and finally it comes about that the rôles are changed and the reading occupies the principal place, while the lecture is confined to explanations of, or comments on, the masterpieces read. Before the *Universités Populaires* existed, the poet, Maurice Bouchor, had organised his Saturday evening popular readings, readings whose success is not yet a thing of the past even in Paris. The *Universités Populaires* of Paris have gone a step further and have tried to improve upon the reading in which several people take part and to organise regular acting. The need for a people's theatre is very strongly felt and various attempts have been made to start one. Maurice Pottecher, with this end in view, became actor

as well as author, and gave popular open-air representations of his plays first at Bussang, in the Vosges, to a very large audience of peasants, and afterwards in Paris in the U.P. The U.P. of Paris are now trying, in face of considerable obstacles, to meet this need. The principal difficulty is to get together a satisfactory company. Sometimes the U.P. have relied entirely upon their own members, sometimes the help of professionals has been called in. Both plans have disadvantages. In the first case, the actors, being for the most part young and inexperienced, are apt to be weak in technique, and their acting tends to degenerate into burlesque. The services of professionals, on the other hand, are always difficult to obtain. With a view to meeting this difficulty an attempt has been made to start an amateur dramatic company, devoting itself to performances in U.P., and the employment of the pupils of the Conservatoire has also been tried with the same object. Possibly there may have been other efforts, but all are too recent to allow of any judgment as to their success. Certainly, no final and perfectly satisfactory plan seems as yet to have been found. But something has been done: classical authors have been represented (either read or acted), and have been enjoyed and applauded; amongst modern writers social pieces, or works on social subjects, are almost the only ones which have a chance of success. It is not possible to forecast the effect which this choice may have upon the public taste of the future, but to have provided rooms, a public capable of æsthetic enjoyment, and a homely environment, is surely to have contributed something towards the solution of the question of a people's theatre which shall be something better than mere extravagant melodrama. These dramatic and musical performances

are usually held, the *soirées* about once a week, and the *matinées* about once a month, and constitute, together with the lectures and classes, a healthy form of recreation, the good effects of which are felt both by those who have the trouble of organising them and by the general public. Other forms of social enjoyment are the expeditions into the country, the rambles and open-air excursions which are so much appreciated in Paris by artizan families. These open-air entertainments are usually very successful, and are almost the only gatherings at which the working-class element is represented in any numbers. But it is not only through amusements that the Paris U.P. contribute to the social education of the people. Many of them have opened bureaus for giving legal and medical advice which have done useful work. Some have organised patronage societies for children (*Union Mouffetard*) or meetings for women (*Education Sociale* at Montmartre). The *Coopération des Idées* in the Faubourg St. Antoine, has succeeded in buying a People's Palace in the midst of the Bois de Boulogne, with a cheap restaurant and amusements, and the *Education Sociale*, at Montmartre, has built comfortable and healthy workmen's dwellings. Other plans have been proposed at various times for forming a Benefit Society, for founding a Social Art Museum, for starting a Union of Co-operative Societies, etc.

Provincial U.P.

When we come to study the U.P. of the suburbs, we are struck at once by certain essential differences which distinguish them from those of Paris. The question of premises which, as has been pointed out, is extremely serious in Paris, is much less acute in the suburbs, where

the Municipal Council is generally found willing to allow the use of a hall or to give a small grant of money. Working men, who are never seen in large numbers at the Paris U.P., except on the occasion of some open-air entertainment or excursion, take a much more active part in the movement in the suburbs. Lastly, the proportion in which the two elements of education and instruction are combined in the two institutions differs to a considerable degree. These peculiarities, which are only slightly noticeable in the suburbs of Paris, become very marked indeed in the provinces.

In order to understand this it is necessary to realise how different is the environment in Paris and in the provinces. In Paris the artizans find a crowd (the word is not too strong) of societies and organisations ready to employ all their spare activity. They are brought constantly into close relationship with one another. Political life, too, is perhaps more intense in the capital than in the provinces. Then, owing to the development of the great shops, and the various branches of public administration, the number of employees and clerks in Paris is very great. But life in the provinces is quite different. Both artizans and employees are less numerous and more scattered than in Paris. Some towns have their suburbs at long distances from one another and from the centre. Meetings and amusements are rare. The bourgeois class, less closely hemmed in than in Paris by masses of working people, forms an important element in provincial society. It is often bound by ties of friendship to the clergy, who are very influential in the small provincial towns and in some parts of the country. And thus a party is formed which is unfavourable to some aspects of the new movement for the emancipation of the worker, and more or less openly hostile to parts of the theory of social progress for

which that movement seeks expression. These difficulties, which might at first sight be looked upon as an obstacle to progress, have on the contrary, helped to consolidate the work of the U.P. Criticism, above all unjust criticism, has only proved its importance; opposition has called forth fresh energy; danger has proved a certain guarantee that those who started the work would persevere in it. It is because they have had more difficulties to contend against at the outset, and have been longer in attaining their full development, that the *Universités Populaires* of the provinces are more firmly established than those of Paris. Their history tells neither of brilliant beginnings nor of prodigious growth, nor of premature decline; it is rather a somewhat tame story of repeated effort and of continuous struggle against difficulties, many of which are the same now as in the past. Unlike the majority of the *Universités Populaires* of Paris, the provincial U.P. almost always owe their origin entirely to the initiative of working men's *syndicats* or of individual working men. Sometimes members of the University have helped in the movement, and sometimes the two elements have been mixed, the artizan class and the educated class working together. Some U.P. in the departments of Deux-Sèvres and of Gard have been established amongst peasants in villages situated in the depth of the country. At Lyons women seem to have taken a prominent part in the movement, and in the south generally the Protestant ministers have had a share in the work. The provincial U.P. is much more working-class than that of Paris in its management, as well as in its origin, many of the administrative councils including a large proportion—sometimes as high as two-thirds—of working men. Indeed, it might safely be said that in the provinces the U.P. has been made by the working people and looks to

them for its support. The movement began in the provinces just about the same time as in Paris or perhaps a little earlier. The *Société d'Économie Populaire*, which was a kind of U.P. before the institution actually existed by name, was founded at Nîmes by a co-operative society (the *Abeille Nîmoise*) as early as 1889. Generally speaking, however, the provincial U.P. were not started until 1899 and 1900. Some societies, amongst them those of Le Puy and Marseilles, have decided not to form themselves definitely into U.P. until they have gone through a probationary or experimental period. Premises are nearly always provided by the Municipality, or, at any rate, do not cost the U.P. anything. Being thus free from what is the heaviest item of expense in Paris, they are able to fix their subscriptions at a lower rate. Three francs a year is the usual amount, but it is sometimes as low as two francs or one franc, and in one case the U.P. is entirely free. Taking the provincial societies as a whole, it is true to say of them, as of those of Paris, that their work falls into three main divisions--classes, lectures and various social-educational activities--but these three constituent elements are combined in such varying proportions, and the forms they take in the provinces are so new and diverse that it will be necessary to enter into some detail concerning them.

One important function of the provincial U.P. is to co-ordinate the various educational societies and working men's organisations of a neighbourhood, and thus, by supplying a common centre of activity, to unite, and by uniting to double the force of, scattered and isolated efforts for the good of the people. Montpellier, Nîmes, Marseilles and Toulouse are all examples of this. If the societies and the people do not come to the U.P., the latter goes out of its way to find them. Sometimes, in a town

such as Lyons which covers a large area, sectional branches have been organised. As a rule, however, the different parts of the town are visited turn by turn by the members of the U.P., which thus forms a sort of central hearth, sending out its light and warmth to a distance. At Tours, which like Lyons covers a large area, a district committee has been established in each working-class quarter of the city. At Beziers the Bourse du Travail, the Town Hall, the school and the theatre are all centres of work. Bourges sends its lecturers not only into the schools of the town but out into the surrounding country. From Montpellier propagandists go out into the neighbouring villages, and examples of this kind might be multiplied. These local lectures sometimes deal with subjects of purely local interest (for example, at Lorient fishing and navigation, the making of cider) sometimes, though still perhaps not so often as would seem desirable, they are given by the working men themselves. Generally speaking, however, lectures on social subjects seem to be preferred by working-class audiences. The country U.P. of Gard, Hérault and Deux-Sèvres have succeeded in gaining a footing amongst agricultural labourers. But what is most noticeable about the provincial audiences, as distinguished from those of Paris, is the number of women and soldiers which they contain. In Paris both are conspicuous by their absence, but in the provinces both are present in large numbers. Women form an important element of the audience at Lyons, Montpellier, Nancy and Toulon; they are to be found in nearly all the U.P. of Gard and of Hérault (St. Pargoire, Anduze, St. Pons); the members of the U.P. of Marsillargues are almost all women. The Lyons U.P. owes its very origin and its powerful organisation to a woman. These facts stand out in still greater relief and their importance is still more

emphasised when we remember how limited and restricted a woman's life (especially in the country) has been on the intellectual and social side until quite recent times. Most of the patronage societies and other Catholic institutions are for the benefit of young girls and women and their influence is not limited to women of the bourgeois class; peasant women and artizans' wives have been so stamped with the impress of traditional ideas, that the intellectual and social enfranchisement of women in the provinces, indeed in France itself, will be a long and arduous undertaking, and the first indications of change which we have noted in the provincial U.P. only mark the beginning of a period of effort, of difficulty and of struggle. There is a conflict between two social ideals. One is closely connected with the influence of the clergy; the other seeks expression for new ideas of solidarity upon an ethical but purely secular basis. The clash of these two social ideals shows itself in work done for the benefit of those who are serving under the colours. For many years numerous well attended and flourishing Catholic clubs have existed for the benefit of the soldiers and have been encouraged by the military authorities. It will be a difficult task to win over this *clientèle* in face of the suspicion and ill-will of the small garrison towns. But on all sides the U.P. are already beginning to attract and win over the young soldiers. Besançon, Bourg and Toulouse have been amongst the first in the field, and there is no doubt that the movement will by degrees become stronger and more general. Concentration on the one hand and expansion on the other may be said to be the two watchwords of the provincial U.P.

In their special institutions the provincial U.P. have shown themselves no less original. A certain number have started hygienic bars, and carry on a campaign against

drunkenness by means of temperance cafés. Brest sells beer, Firminy and Versailles have established bars on their premises. Lasalle (Gard) has fitted up a temperance café. Sauvè (Gard) has opened a refreshment room where neither gambling nor drinking are allowed, and has been the means of appreciably lowering the consumption of alcohol in the commune in the course of a few years. Several U.P. have gardens of their own with games and refreshments (Bar le Due, Montauban, etc.), and in the south some have succeeded in building *Maisons du Peuple* which are their own property. Gallargues (Gard) owns one of these, founded by a schoolmaster of Nîmes in October, 1899, and built at a cost of 26,000 francs. Vallerargue (Gard) has founded a *Foyer du Peuple* with a room for games, a reading room, and a room for the use of villagers coming in to market. And it has accomplished this in spite of the attitude of the authorities which sought to levy a tax on the meetings as constituting a gaming club, and in face of much opposition from the local café keepers, to say nothing of the indifference of the municipality. Montpellier has its "*Mazet*" of which we shall speak again later.

In addition to this general activity, the provincial U.P. seeks to unite its members by means of recreation and mutual societies. Vitry and Briaux-sur-Boutonne (Deux-Sèvres) organise shooting practice; Marseillan (Hérault) gymnastic exercises; everywhere different forms of recreation are to be found. Musical associations are particularly flourishing in the provinces: choral societies are being started everywhere—at Châlons-sur-Marne, Epernay, Firminy, Rennes, Béziers, etc. With the help of local poets, certain rural U.P. in Deux-Sèvres have given theatrical performances in patois. At Chey (also in Deux-Sèvres) a woman has taken the chief part in organising a

mutual society for school children. Beauvais has founded a patronage society for 100 boys and 100 girls, and Versailles has started a fund from which free loans are made.

But it would be dangerous, to generalise from such particulars "concerning" institutions which differ so much from one another as the U.P. of provincial France. A better idea of their work will be gained from a more detailed description of a few of the most important and characteristic amongst them. The *Société Populaire* of Bar le Duc, which was founded in January, 1900, numbered as many as 400 artisans' and small employees' families among its members in 1901. The yearly subscription is two francs. The town has contributed 600 francs, one of the banks 500, a brewery 750, and other gifts have come in to help the finances. The town has also given over for the use of the society an ancient almshouse for old men. According to its rules, the administrative council must include seven artisan members out of a total of eleven. Classes in German and domestic economy (the latter for women and including amongst the subjects taught, the care of children, food, women and alcoholism, domestic hygiene, etc.) have attracted from thirty to forty regular students. A weekly lecture includes a short informal talk, reading and music. A monthly *Bulletin* summarises the instruction given in the classes. Every three months a gala night is arranged, with the help either of local artists or of artists from a distance—Nancy or Paris. There is a labour bureau, which has plans for starting trade classes. Politics are so rigidly excluded that the daily papers are not even allowed in the reading-room.—The Lyons U.P. was started in December, 1899, under the name of *Société d'Enseignement Supérieur Libre*. It was founded by the Directress of the Girls' Lycée, with the idea of bringing

together the various philanthropic agencies already existing in the city, and inducing them to organise fewer entertainments and a large number of serious classes. Her object was not only to teach the working-class population the truths and methods of science, but also to give them practical knowledge of administration and experience in the management of affairs. She hoped to set an example which would be followed by others both in the town itself and in the department. This programme has been carried out point by point. The branch U.P. the *Croix-Rousse*, which is situated in a suburb of Lyons, has 200 members paying an annual subscription of two francs each. The municipality supports it and has provided it with spacious premises lighted by electricity and including, on the ground floor, a hall to hold 500 people and, on the first floor, two smaller rooms, a library and a museum. Its affairs are in the hands of a committee of management consisting of sixteen working people—eight men and eight women—each member of which has charge of some special branch of the work. Classes consisting of from eight to sixteen lessons are held on such subjects as working-class legislation, hygiene, the history of labour, etc. Lectures are also given on general subjects or on the events of the day. The aggregate attendance at these classes and lectures is as high as 6,000 to 8,000. The library contains 400 volumes and several periodicals and subscribes to four Paris magazines and three newspapers. Plays bearing on social subjects are acted by the working men and women. Several clubs for the study of social subjects have been established in different parts of the town in imitation of it. The *Etienne Dolet* club has a well attended course in working-class legislation. The *Emile Zola* and the *Guillotière* bor-

row their lecturers from the *Croix-Rousse*; the neighbouring departments also apply to it for help, and a federation of twelve societies of the district has just been formed in connection with it.—The *Foyer du Peuple* at Marseillès, which is now in a state of decadence, was above all things a travelling university, at the service of already existing societies and in particular of the Southern Federation of Co-operative Societies.—The *Société d'Enseignement Populaire*, at Montpellier, which was the result of informal lectures given at the *Bourse du Travail* in 1898, had 803 members in 1902–3. The subscriptions are graduated for members of the same family.¹ The town gives a grant of 1,000 francs, and the Conseil Général grants another 200 francs; class-rooms, lighting and heating are furnished by the municipality. Each branch of the work is under the direction of its own head, who is a member of the Central Committee. There are classes in hygiene, in singing for girls, in drawing, etc. At the headquarters of the society two weekly lectures are given and attract a regular audience of 200 people, more than half of whom are artizans and a large number women. A few lectures have been given by working men and by women. The programmes for each month are given to the children in the schools, and 3,000 to 5,000 leaflets are distributed in this way. The names of the lecturers are never announced. These lectures go the round of the town, and as many as 120 were given outside the town in 1902–3. Musical entertainments are also very popular with an audience which has a natural gift for music and is fond of part-singing. Visits to the town museums, to laboratories and factories have also been successfully organised. Lastly, in addi-

1. 50 centimes a year for each of the two first members; 25 centimes for the two next; 10 centimes for each of the others.

tion to country rambles and expeditions, the society has set up the *Mazet du Peuple*, or People's Summer-house, on a little bit of land which it rents in the neighbourhood. It is above everything a place for out-door recreation, consisting of a beautiful avenue of pine trees, a wild garden, where there are various games and where temperance drinks as well as wine and beer can be had, and a house which serves as a shelter and cloak-room. Artizans' families come and spend their Sundays there and have their dinner on the grass. From seventy to eighty people regularly take advantage of these opportunities for out-door recreation. Altogether the Montpellier Society is prospering.—The *Institut Populaire* at Nancy, besides having a fairly good library, devotes special attention to the artistic side of life, decorating the walls of its rooms with drawings, pastels, engravings and mouldings, and beautifying them with flowers. The feminine element is strong. Two-thirds of the Central Committee are working men.—The U.P. at Rennes, which was founded in 1898, at the *Bourse du Travail*, and is supported by *syndicats* and co-operative societies, has also a council of which two-thirds are working men. A class in machine construction has been attended by railway men, and lectures, in short courses of three or four, have had an attendance of 150 while concerts have attracted audiences of over 350. An artisan has sometimes been known to give a lecture and the whole spirit of the work, in close relationship as it is with workingmen's organisations, is democratic and appears to be full of life.—The *Coopération des Idées* at Rouen, which was inaugurated on April 5th, 1900, has been presented by a benefactor with an ancient unused church in one of the artisan quarters of the town, which has been converted into an

assembly hall and temperance restaurant. The society has organised a library, classes and lectures, and has spread into all parts of the town and suburbs. Visits to the observatory and open-air excursions have been equally successful. But the most popular forms of entertainment seem to be family gatherings, music and singing. There are a large number of women members.--The *Foyer du Peuple*, at Toulouse, owes its origin to the united efforts of the *Petites A.*¹ and the artisans' *syndicats*. It has brought the various existing societies together by inducing them to subscribe in their collective capacity to the U.P. From 1900 onwards, regular classes have been arranged for the study of working-class legislation, political economy, hygiene, etc., and a secular club for soldiers has been started. But the mention of even the best known and most original of the U.P. would occupy much more space than is here available, and the more obscure societies and those of which particulars are necessarily omitted here are far from being the least active and interesting.

Notwithstanding all this, the "crisis of the U.P." is spoken of on all sides, and their enemies even go so far as to talk of failure and ruin. An impartial examination of the facts shows that the work has been checked and has fallen back in Paris and in the south, indeed, to a certain extent everywhere. At a recent Congress of U.P. the whole question was discussed. What is the real truth of the matter? In the first place a distinction should be made between Paris and the rest of the country. In Paris, no doubt, there is a crisis and a serious one. In the provinces the condition of affairs varies very much in different localities: in some it is full of difficulty, in others quite the reverse. The present unrest is

1. See above, pp. 600-2.

due to several causes. If the dates at which the U.P. were founded are recalled, it will be seen that they are contemporary with, or a little earlier than, the Dreyfus case. From the storm of feeling aroused by that case, came either the burst of enthusiasm which founded them or the impulse which gave them fresh life. Then was formed the alliance between the "intellectuals," as they were at first contemptuously called, and the working men. The enthusiasm of a section of the liberal *bourgeoisie* and the efforts of University men, professors and students, went more than half way to meet the desire of the working-men for instruction, instruction which, according to their ideas, was a necessary condition of their emancipation. To this generous movement, set on foot by the pressure of public events, the U.P. for the most part owe their origin. But the cause once won in principle and the battle over, the troops were allowed to scatter, enthusiasm died down, some of the University men returned to their studies and the working-men, only half convinced even in the days of hottest struggle, gave up a work the beginnings of which they had watched with curiosity but which had never really satisfied them. Lectures little suited to a working-class audience, often over their heads and almost always lacking the interest given by discussion, were condemned as "sleepy" by the Paris artizans. The lower middle-classes, on the other hand, took fright at the liberality of the ideas involved in the movement and pronounced the work revolutionary. Further, the Paris U.P. are struggling against very great financial difficulties. The high rent which they have to pay for their premises is an overwhelming burden and the members' subscriptions are both insufficient and irregular. This precarious financial situation is one of the chief causes of the present crisis. In the provinces, on the other hand, one of the greatest

difficulties is that of the hostile environment. Although this is sometimes an incentive to fresh effort, sometimes it proves to be an insurmountable obstacle and is the ruin of the U.P. The provincial U.P. have against them the "clergy, the well-to-do middle-classes and the large companies. And there are other difficulties of various kinds which have to be surmounted, *e.g.*, persuading various people to work together, choice of lecturers, distance, etc. The provincial U.P., moreover, has not always been successful in adapting itself to its surroundings—it has hesitated between the idea of an educational society and a political league. There is indeed no generally accepted definition of what a U.P. should be. Take, for example, the views of two of the most authoritative representatives of the movement. Mons. Guieysse, general secretary to the U.P. Society, conceives it to be a militant institution, a weapon in the hands of the working man in the struggle of class against class. Mons. Deherme, the founder of the original U.P. of the Faubourg St. Antoine, and one of the most energetic promoters of the movement, would like to see in it, on the contrary, only a drawing together of the classes, a peaceful institution for promoting education and recreation.¹ Both, perhaps, are right. The first may point to the conditions to which the Paris U.P. will have to conform if it is going to live and become a permanent institution. Certainly, if it is to continue, it will have to undergo radical change. The type of institution outlined by the second, though

1. At the Congress held in Paris in May, 1904, which was called together by the Federation of the U.P. of Paris and the suburbs, and at which three district federations and 69 U.P. were represented, it was decided that the U.P. should "hold themselves aloof from politics, and should concern themselves directly with co-operative undertakings and with patronage societies, in imitation of what the U.P. of Nancy has done in organising a *Colonie de Vacances* (Country holidays)." (Congrès des U.P. (Mai 1904) textes et documents: *Cahiers de la Quinzaine*. Quoted by Ed. Petit, *Rapport 1903-4*).

exceptional in Paris, is common in the provinces, where the U.P. has been able to draw together scattered forces and to organise, not only classes, but courses of lectures and various kinds of social work. Be this as it may, the U.P. have already done good service. In Paris country expeditions and open-air entertainments appear to be the most successful part of the work, and their influence, from our point of view, is just as far-reaching and important as that of lectures. In the provinces, frequent lectures are accustoming the members to a more serious form of recreation and teaching them respect for the opinions of others. The work, with the help of the district federations, is making its way into hitherto inaccessible quarters—amongst peasants, soldiers and women,—and is extending its influence far and wide. Everywhere, in Paris as well as in the provinces, a change seems to be taking place in the nature of the U.P. the “intellectuals” are taking a smaller and smaller part in the work, and are being replaced by co-operators. May it not be that the present unrest is but the temporary sign of this change, a change from which the U.P. will eventually gain in strength and force what it may perhaps lose in width of view and in individual talent?

G. *Work connected with Religious Bodies.*

(i.) *Roman Catholic.* The Roman Catholics can rightfully claim to have been first in the field in the matter of continuation work as in the matter of schools. Jean Baptiste de la Salle organised classes for adults as early as 1690, and the first patronage societies date from 1799. These patronage societies, always a favourite form of activity with the Catholics, have multiplied rapidly: few in number until the middle of the 19th century, they began to increase under the Empire, and have spread with

great rapidity during the last few years. In 1901 they numbered 4,168 (2,351 for boys and 1,817 for girls), while the lay patronage societies only numbered 2,125 in 1903-4. In 1889 a central association of Patronage Societies was formed which has held several congresses and publishes two papers, *Patronage* and *Patronage des Jeunes Filles*, which are important propagandising agents. Side by side with the patronage societies connected with the *Ecoles Chrétiennes* and continuing the work begun in those schools, there have existed, ever since religious teaching was withdrawn from the curriculum of the secular schools by the law of March 28th, 1882, equally active patronage societies for the benefit of the pupils in the latter. These 32,574 *Catéchismes de Persévérance* (the number in 1901) seem to be a purely religious work. But the distinction between education and instruction is even more difficult to draw here than it is in the case of secular organisations. No one can fail to see that the character of the director or of the organisers of the Catholic patronage societies—curés, masters and mistresses of denominational schools, “sisters” and “brothers” of the Christian Schools—must have its influence on the minds of the children. Moreover, although the outward appearance of the patronage society is very much the same whether it be secular or Catholic, though they both include social gatherings with games, physical exercises, excursions, lectures and recreation,¹ they are very different in spirit, and in work of this sort it is mutual understanding, moral hold over the young people and a common atmosphere which are the essential things. If this is borne in mind it will help to explain the nature of some of the religious work, between which and *patronage* proper it is

1. To these the Catholics almost always add an employment bureau or apprentices.

sometimes difficult to distinguish, and will also enable the reader to understand why patronage societies are so much in favour and make such progress in Catholic circles. Add to this that there is a strong element of religious enthusiasm in the work, that it has gained a footing amongst the children of peasants, and that the girls' patronage societies have been in existence ever since 1851, and some idea will be gained of the size and strength of the movement. One of its distinguishing features is the place given to physical training and gymnastics and latterly to technical education. Side by side with the patronage societies are the Catholic popular libraries. In 1900 their number was estimated at 30,000, and one of them (Boulogne-sur-Mer) possessed 52,000 volumes. About 10 per cent. of them have circulating libraries, the earliest of the kind to be started in France. A central organisation, the *Société Bibliographique des Bibliothèques*, which was founded in 1868, issues a *bulletin* and publishes a magazine, the *Polybiblion*. Lastly, there is the *Société Générale d'Education et d'Enseignement* which dates from 1867 and which, through its various committees, directs the whole movement. These committees are three: the education committee which deals with questions of pedagogical, social and religious improvement; the consultative committee, whose business it is to help new organisations; and the administrative committee, which deals with questions of finance, etc. The Society also publishes a *bulletin* which is very useful for purposes of propaganda. Above the patronage societies are certain institutions analogous to the *Universités Populaires*—the People's Institutes and Study Clubs. These study clubs, intended for young artizans whom the patronage societies have cared for as children, are, like the latter and for the same reasons, very widespread and flourishing. They are organised according

to districts, frequent district conferences strengthen the ties which unite them, and a National Congress brings them all together once a year. At the Tours Congress, in February 1903, 500 were represented. In Paris a quarterly conference serves to bring together the fifty clubs, or thereabouts, of the city and suburbs, and a club visitor, sent by the Central Bureau, pays each club a visit at least once a quarter. These weekly gatherings of young people (generally about fifteen in number) for the discussion of social questions under careful guidance, form little centres of Catholic influence and educate their members to be disciples, propagandists and apostles of the Catholic social ideal. The People's Institutes, on the other hand, the U.P. of the Catholics, have not had any great success. They are rather later in origin than the first U.P., and remain very much behind them in numbers—in the year 1903 there were not more than twenty in existence. They are kept together, however, by a strong central organisation in Paris, the *Sillon*,¹ which is a model institute and centre of propaganda. But it is clear, and Catholics themselves recognise the fact, that in this direction Catholic effort has had but little success. It is a question here, not of children and young people, but of adults, of working-men, with opinions already formed, and the Church uses other means to win them over. She has been wise enough to multiply agricultural *syndicats*. Side by side with the secular co-operative societies and *syndicats*, she has raised up *syndicats* and co-operative societies animated by her own spirit. Before the Petites Cavé existed, she had organised mutual societies both for school children and for adults; she has cared for the well-being of peasants and of artisans, starting lectures on agriculture for the benefit of the former and supplying the latter with cheap dwellings, allotment gardens and a labour bureau. Last, but not

1. For a good account of Catholic Social Effort in France, and particularly of the work of *Sillon*, see article in the "Dublin Review," July, 1906 (London: Burns and Oates).

least, she has known admirably how to adapt her work to district and local needs, varying her methods, bringing together the various branches in frequent conference, and animating the whole with one spirit. The Catholics may rightfully claim to have been first in the field in almost all directions. But few efforts are now peculiar to them, except perhaps—and the exception is noteworthy—the place given to physical exercises, particularly to gymnastics. Side by side with the secular institutions, the Church raises hers, of earlier origin, strongly organised, and well adapted to their surroundings. The thing which is common to them all, and which constitutes their strength is discipline, backed by considerable financial resources.

(ii.) *Protestant.* The chief characteristics of the Protestant work would seem to be a combination of secular and clerical activities, breadth of view and consequent tolerance, and the originality of some of its organisations. The Sunday schools which grew up during the whole of the 19th century were founded upon this close connection between religious teaching and general instruction and education. The President of the Sunday School Society, which is their central organisation, declared, in 1887, that every town where Protestants were to be found, and most of such villages and hamlets, possessed a Sunday school. The Thursday schools, established since the passing of the Act of March 28th, 1882, are the Protestant counterparts of the *Catéchismes de Persévérance*. The Religious Tract Society of Paris (*Société des Traités religieux*) and the Religious Book Society of Toulouse (*Société des Livres religieux*) furnish them with a plentiful supply of religious books. A central society for the encouragement of primary education amongst French Protestants has existed since 1829. But the real glory

of the Protestants in this connection are their country holidays, their temperance work and their Young People's Christian Associations. Started in 1881, the country holidays movement has had a rapid success. Its founder in Paris was M^{onsieur} le Pasteur Lorriaux, but the original idea came from another pasteur, Mons. Bion, of Zurich. The *Œuvre des Trois-Semaines* has established two country houses (one for boys and one for girls), three sea-side houses, two centres in Seine-et-Oise, and five in Somme. In 1901 this society sent 6,130 children into the country. The *Œuvre de la Chaussée du Maine*, founded in 1882 by Madame Pressensé, admits children of all nationalities and of all forms of religious belief. It has several establishments in Loiret and one by the sea. "It combines the two systems of the 'colony' and the 'home'; after inquiry, certain peasant families living in the villages and hamlets near the colony are chosen out and children are sent to them, so that a larger number in all can be provided for."¹ The number of children helped in 1902 was 1,378, and during twenty years the society has been the means of providing a fresh-air cure for as many as 9,192. In the Midlands and South (St. Etienne, Alais, Clermont-Ferrand, Lyons, Toulouse) a similar society, the *Œuvre des Enfants à la Montagne* has been started through the initiative of the pastors of the district, and throughout the provinces country holiday societies have been organised in imitation of those of Paris. In the temperance movement the Protestants have from the first shown great ardour, and the earliest temperance societies were founded by them. In other directions the origin of certain happy ideas may be traced to them: the society *Passer-revue*²

1. Pellisson.

2. There is a similar secular society called *Journeaux pour Tous*.

circulates periodicals; in sixty towns free public reading and writing rooms have been opened 'for soldiers, and one pasteur has extended these soldiers' clubs to China and Tonquin. Lastly, the Christian Associations seem to be the very prototypes of the *Universités Populaires*. Started from 1850 onwards for moral and religious instruction, they have made the greatest progress since they enlarged their programme in 1889, and gave themselves more to social work. They bring together people of different classes and provide for them, besides regular teaching, lectures, libraries, physical exercises and recreation; also shower-baths and the necessary equipment for hydropathic treatment and for gymnastics—and all this in premises which are their own property. The Paris Association possesses a co-operative restaurant, a fencing-school, a soldiers' common-room, etc. The *Alliance Nationale Française*, which was founded in 1867, is a federation of Christian Associations embracing ten district groups and a central committee, and holding a National Congress every three years. In 1902 the Alliance included 103 associations, nearly 6,000 full members, and 1,070 junior members. Its work already includes patronage societies for wards (83 in 1902), and at the last Congress, held in 1902, attention was called to the need of doing something more to bring together the children and young people.

(iii.) *Jewish*. The Jewish organisations bear the mark of a liberal charity. The *Œuvre de la Communauté*, founded in 1873 and supported by subscriptions and donations, is their central organisation. It has started a circulating library, and has opened kitchens for the provision of meals for children. Scholarships are granted to boys and girls who wish to enter the *Ecoles professionnelles*. The Jews have also promoted country

holidays; the *Œuvre des Séjours à la Campagne* has two country houses and organises country excursions. The *Association des anciennes Elèves de l'Ecole Bischoffsheim* and the *Société des anciens Elèves de l'Ecole du Travail*, have started patronage societies and benefit funds. In Paris and in some of the large provincial towns (Lyons, Marseilles, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Algiers) there are also independent patronage societies. The *Union Scolaire*, which has existed in Paris since 1891, endeavours to bring together all the old Jewish scholars from the various types of school, and has organised for their benefit classes, lectures, a medical branch and an employment bureau. A Jewish U.P. has also been attempted.

II. Conclusion.

If we consider only the figures quoted in the course of this article, France has a right to be proud of the continuation work which has been accomplished in a century. Let it be remembered that there are to-day in France—and some of these statistics, dating, as they do, from a year or two back, must be taken as an under-statement of the actual figures—over 52,000 continuation classes with an aggregate attendance of nearly a million, and more than 40,000 popular libraries, with from seven to eight million books; that, without including the *Universités Populaires* and the religious or other special agencies, over 110,000 lectures were organised in 1903-4, and attracted an aggregate audience of three million people; that 2,228 societies for the education of the people are officially registered, many of them with several thousand students, and some, as for instance the *Polytechnique* and the *Philotechnique*, with as many as 700 and 800 classes each week; that the *Ligue de l'Enseignement* has enrolled more than 3,000 branches and societies, its annual income

amounting to 3,000,000 francs; that there are nearly 6,000 *Petites A*, keeping up the connection between past and present scholars of the primary schools; and 2,125 Patronage Societies helping in the development of the democratic spirit. Add to these 150 *Universités Populaires*, and we have a fairly complete list of the various agencies which are at work for secular teaching and social education. Notwithstanding all this activity, there is a widespread feeling of discouragement; the teachers say that the continuation classes are a failure; the *syndicats* declare that the *Ecoles Professionnelles* are useless; the "crisis of the U.P." is talked of. How is all this to be explained? We might fall back on the traditional theory of the fickleness of the French people, starting institutions with a quick enthusiasm and abandoning them with an equally rapid discouragement, but such an explanation would be too general to be just, and it is possible to state the causes of the present unrest more exactly. In the first place, the uneasiness itself has brought to light certain gaps in the work and has shown the urgent need for improvement. Enlightened public opinion, which recognises the need for after-school education, is ready for the necessary changes. If they are to continue and flourish, the *Cours d'Adultes* must cease to depend on the self-sacrifice of the teachers; they must be organised as part of the public provision of education, on the same footing as the regular primary schools. The teachers ought to receive a fair remuneration for their labours, or, if this would mean, all at once, too heavy a charge on the State, the suggestion of the *Union pédagogique du Rhone* might be adopted and the ordinary school work of a teacher be reduced by one hour a day, so that he might be able to devote five hours a week to evening continuation work. As to compulsory attendance, it has been so difficult of enforcement

even in the case of children at day schools, that there can hardly be any serious thought of imposing it upon adults; and it would be equally impossible to force it upon young people so long as the laws concerning the conditions of juvenile work remain as they are.¹

Further, in considering this whole question, we must distinguish between those institutions which are firmly established and whose future seems to be assured—Mutual Societies, Lectures, Readings—and those whose future seems uncertain—*Ecoles Professionnelles*, and the *Universités Populaires* of Paris. These last are just those upon which the artisans can exert the strongest influence, and it seems as if we might find in the consideration of their case an indication of a change which is gradually coming over all these institutions. Started and supported by the radical party, they have, until now, borne the stamp of its ideas, as is shown by the part taken in the work by the teaching profession, and by the development of a certain military spirit. The existence of so many gymnastic societies, whose work is showy rather than solid, and which compete with other more modest organisations, is to be attributed to the influence of the period when they were started—just after the Franco-Prussian war—quite as

1. The *Ligue de l'Enseignement* recently instituted a commission of inquiry into technical education which was presided over by M. René Leblanc, Inspecteur Général de l'Enseignement Primaire, and which issued a report drawn up by MM. Baudrillard and Rocheron. This report was discussed at the Congress held at Amiens in September 1904, and the following demands were formulated:—

1. That the instruction of adults (technical, agricultural, industrial, commercial or general) shall be compulsory;

2. That technical education shall be of a practical character adapted to the locality and to the needs of the different agricultural, commercial and industrial interests;

3. That the obligation shall extend to at least three sessions of six months each spread over three years between the ages of 12 and 18;

4. That the instruction shall be given in the day-time without loss of salary to the apprentice, and without any increase in the length of his working day or of his apprenticeship.

(Ed. Petit, *Rapport*, 1903-4).

much as to the young Frenchman's natural love of parade. But are we not now at the beginning of a new period of activity? Artizans are taking the place of schoolmasters, University men, and liberals. The activity of the artizans showed itself first in politics, but side by side with their political work, they have been developing their social work—*Bourses du Travail*, *Syndicats*, Co-operative Societies, associations for various objects. Now it is in the field of popular education that their progressive movement is beginning to make itself felt. They are bringing that movement home to the people, teaching them to stand on their own feet, animating and directing them. Lastly, we must rejoice to see a strong movement towards freedom springing up amongst peasants, on behalf of children and amongst women, classes hitherto unsympathetic to the new ideas, but amongst whom the work of instruction and social education has now a wide field thrown open to it. We should not, therefore, allow ourselves, in considering this question, either to be blinded by the past success and present imposing dimensions of the work, or to be too easily discouraged. To be just, we must take into account both the weakness and the strength of the whole movement, and must feel that the present time of unrest and change, although it may be long and painful, is, after all, a sign of life.

GEORGES CAHEN.

APPENDIX A.

FINANCE.

The following particulars of the financial resources of what are grouped together in France as *Œuvres Complémentaires de l'Ecole* (Continuation Classes, Petites A, Mutual Societies, Patronage Societies, etc.) are taken from M. Ed. Petit's Report on *L'Education Populaire* for 1903-4.

The funds are derived from three main sources:—

- (1) Private initiative.
- (2) Municipalities and *Conseils Généraux*.
- (3) The State.

Under the first heading (1) we have:—

- (a) *Donations and legacies*, the amount of which, as officially declared, is 42,274 francs. Taking everything into account, however (subscriptions to Educational Societies, Petites A, Patronage Societies, etc.) the total under this sub-head may be estimated at 2,000,000 francs.
- (b) *Paying Courses*. Evening, like day schools, are free, and the total amount paid by the audiences towards the remuneration of the teachers is only 16,032 francs.

Under (2) we have:—

- (a) Classes paid for by the municipalities. Total amount 1,694,852 francs. 408,530 francs of this refers to Paris and the Department de la Seine, thus leaving about 1,200,000 francs from this

source for the remuneration of the provincial teachers of whom, deducting 1,700 for Paris and the Seine from the total of 63,661 engaged in the work in 1903-4, there are 61,961. In 30 departments (mountainous regions in the centre, west and south-east) heating and lighting are still paid for by these voluntary educators.

(b) *Conseils Généraux*, 56,359 francs.

(The *Conseils Généraux* of 54 departments give no subvention at all.)

(3) *The State*.

The amount of State grant voted for "*Œuvres auxiliaires de l'École*" is 350,000 francs.

SUMMARY.

(1) *Private initiative*:—

(a) Legacies, donations, subscriptions, etc. (about)	2,000,000
(b) Payments by those attending the classes	16,032
	<hr/> 2,016,032

(2) *Municipalities and Conseils Généraux*:—

(a) Payments made for classes by municipalities	1,694,852
(b) Grants by Conseils Généraux	56,359
	<hr/> 1,751,211

(3) *The State* 350,000

Total (francs)..... 4,117,243

= £164,690

APPENDIX B.

LIST OF AUTHORITIES.

The most important complete works on the subject are:—

Pellison, Maurice: Les Œuvres auxiliaires et complémentaires de l'École en France. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1903, pp. 181. (An accurate, full and excellent book.)

Petit, Edouard: Rapports sur l'Éducation populaire. These have appeared at the end of every school year (July-August) since 1895 in the *Journal Officiel de la République française*. Published separately at the Imprimerie Nationale. (Complete official report giving information as to the continuation school movement year by year. Indispensable.)

Besides numerous articles which have appeared in the different periodicals dealing with elementary and higher education—such as the *Bulletin administratif du Ministère de l'Instruction Publique*, the *Revue Pédagogique*, the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement Supérieur*, the *Pages Libres*, etc., etc.—and various reports and monographs, some of them published for the Paris Exposition of 1900, mention should also be made of the following:—

For the *Universités Populaires*:—

Les Universités Populaires 1900-1901. I. Paris et Banlieue. II. Départements. Cahiers de la Quinzaine, 8, rue de la Sorbonne, Paris. 10th and 20th cahiers of the 3rd series—pp. 17 and 155.¹

1. The transactions (*textes et documents*) of the Congrès des U.P. held in Paris in May, 1904, have been published in the Cahiers de la Quinzaine.

L'Enseignement populaire dans les départements de l'Hérault et du Gard. Montpellier, 1903, pp. 211. (A pamphlet containing a clear account of the condition of the U.P. in two southern departments.)

For the Roman Catholic work:—

Almanach du Sillon. Paris, 34, Boulevard Raspail.
Annales de la Jeunesse Catholique. Paris.

Guide Sociale de l'Action Populaire. Paris. (Annual publication, giving a conspectus of all the Catholic social work that is being done or projected in France, together with some information about social progress in other countries and a bibliography).

The above are indispensable, but the literature of the subject is abundant, particularly on the purely educational side—Cours d'adultes, etc.

Mention should also be made of the following books:—

Turmann, Max: Au Sortir de l'Ecole: les Patronages. Paris, V. Le Coffre, 3rd ed., 1901.

Special Reports on Educational Subjects. Vol. 7. (London: Wyman & Sons, 1902). Reports on Rural Education in France. By Cloudesley Brereton and J. C. Medd, pp. 196–211 and 261–2.

Turmann, Max: L'Education Populaire. Les Œuvres complémentaires de l'Ecole. Paris, V. Le Coffre, 2nd ed., 1904.

Leblanc, René: L'Enseignement professionnel en France au début du xx^e Siècle. Paris, Cornély, 1905.

In the preparation of this article use has also been made of information obtained privately and of certain unpublished documents.

CHAPTER XXII.

Evening Schools in the United States.¹

THE position in the world of education occupied by the School systems of the United States of America is in many respects of intense interest.

The past twenty years have seen great changes in the character of the people; and the nation itself is becoming curiously polyglot. The great number of foreign families constantly arriving in the country forms one of the most difficult social and educational problems which the Government must solve. In addition, constant demands are being made on the educational administration by a keenly-striving and progressive commercial community, as well as by the calls of a huge industrial body, which claims for its artisan members a broader instruction in the arts and crafts than they can get in their ordinary daily experience.

It will be readily conceded that any system endeavouring to cope with such varied needs must be interesting; and the educational methods seen in the United States can be justly admired for their courage and enterprise, even when these very qualities give opportunity for criticism.

By the system of education in the public day schools, a good deal is done to lay the foundation of American character and of intelligent citizenship. The evening school system is scarcely so thorough or so fully organised; but

1. This chapter is based upon observations made in the cities of New York, Boston, Springfield (Mass.), Rochester (N.Y.) and Buffalo, in February and March, 1907, when, as one of the teachers for whom arrangements were made by Mr. Mosely, the writer was visiting the United States for the purpose of studying methods of teaching and of educational administration.

teachers and pupils alike seem to have great faith in its efficacy, and are striving towards more perfect attainment of their aims.

The most difficult problem in the administration of evening schools in America lies, as in England, in securing regular attendance from the pupils. Everywhere the experience is the same: -

(a) A considerable enrolment ("enrolment" signifying the number of students who apply for admission, and whose names are placed upon the records).

(b) A great diminution in the number of students who actually attend the classes for one night or more. The students so attending are spoken of as being on the "register."

(c) A still greater drop in the average attendance.

As a general statement, it is true to say that only one-half of the enrolled students complete more than one-half of the possible attendances. This is a very serious weakness, and if in this respect a comparison were possible between similar schools in America and England, it would probably be to the advantage of England.

The official figures for New York City for 1905-6 illustrate this. For evening elementary schools the percentage of average attendance as compared with the "register" seems to be 68 per cent., and for evening high schools 71 per cent., but when the percentage is taken on the "enrolment," the records of 32 subjects taught show that only in one school did the percentage reach 50 per cent., in four it was over 40 per cent., in twenty-one it was over 30 per cent., and in six it was below 30 per cent. The system of evening schools in New York is admirable, as is also the case at Springfield in the neighbouring State of Massachusetts. Yet the same weakness in regard to attendance is manifest in the two cities. In the Springfield Evening

High Schools the attendance in 1905-6 was 79 per cent. of the numbers on the register, and 72 per cent. of the numbers "enrolled." But in the elementary evening schools of the same city, the attendance was only 49 per cent. of the number of students on the register and only 36 per cent. of the number enrolled.

Throughout the United States, the evening school system is based on the organisation of the public day schools. It must be noted that (with exceedingly rare exceptions), the whole of the education given till the termination of the high school course is entirely free, both in day and evening schools.

By the new compulsory education laws of New York State and Massachusetts every child must attend a "grammar" (*i.e.*, elementary) school till the age of 14, or until he or she has "graduated": that is, until he or she has earned the official certificate of having satisfactorily completed Grade VIII or Grade IX in that school. Occasionally, this is accomplished at 13, but more generally at 15, or even later. The child may then proceed to employment without hindrance; or he may enrol in the public "high" (*i.e.*, secondary) school where is offered a course of four years' academic or manual training. Thus a student can "graduate" from, *i.e.*, complete the course at, a High School at from 17 to 20 years of age.

But neither in the elementary nor in the high schools do the majority of pupils complete their full course. Hence, in further extension of the principle of compulsion, the State of New York has enacted that children below 16 years of age who do not possess their graduation certificate from the "grammar" (*i.e.*, elementary) school may not engage in any occupation on leaving school at 14 years of age, except on the understanding that they are compelled to attend evening classes, till the age of 16, or until the

required certificate of attainment is obtained. The employer is jointly responsible with the student for the fulfilment of this condition.

It is to be regretted, however, that the existing machinery of local government in the United States seems unable to secure the enrolment of these backward pupils in adequate numbers upon the evening school registers, and still less their regular attendance at evening schools. In order to bring about the continued attendance of such pupils in accordance with the existing law, record would have to be kept of the place and nature of the employment up to 16 years of age of every pupil who had left the day school without completing the full course, and as careful a record of his or her attendance and progress at evening school. This could only be done by requiring the school attendance officer to keep in touch with every case coming under the law, and by making the responsibility of the masters for the continued education of their employees more real and effective. Every employer should be obliged by law to afford opportunity for attending evening school to every young person in his or her employment who had not completed the course at the day school.

But so far is the law from being at present enforced that in the large cities there are hundreds of cases of evasion.

It is further admitted that there is at present no systematic enforcement of the law in the case of young persons who are unemployed, or who are working in occupations (such as boot-blackening and newspaper-vending) which are more or less casual and irresponsible.

The evening schools in the United States may conveniently be grouped into three main sections:—

- A. The Elementary Evening Schools.
- B. The Evening High Schools.
- C. The Evening Technical and Trade Schools.

A., THE ELEMENTARY EVENING SCHOOLS.

The elementary evening schools are somewhat limited in scope, being mainly preparatory to more complete and liberal work in the evening high and technical schools. They are usually grouped in three main divisions.

- (a) Classes for completion of the day school course ("graduation classes").
- (b) Classes for foreigners desirous of learning to speak and write English.
- (c) Classes for adult students not qualified for admission to the evening high or technical schools who desire to study one or two special subjects, usually commercial in character.

(a) The immediate purpose of these so-called "graduation classes" in the evening schools is to give as full an educational equipment as possible to those who have failed to reach the final day school standard either through lack of mental alertness, or through lack of opportunity to complete the full course. Many qualify during their first session, and can then elect to be drafted into the evening high school, or into the special classes of the elementary evening school. Both alternatives are widely taken, and it is a decided advantage to the teachers of the more advanced subjects that these students should come to them well prepared, *e.g.*, in Arithmetic (for Bookkeeping) and in English (for Stenography).

(b) The classes in the second division are doing a great work in assimilating the foreign element. One City Superintendent of Schools says, "Our evening schools are

not only giving education per se, but they are also making American citizens." Thus in one evening school with over 600 male students on the books, I found that there were three classes of students belonging to Division (a), *i.e.*, completing their day school course; six classes of students belonging to Division (c), studying various commercial subjects; but no less than twelve classes of students belonging to Division (b) learning to speak and write the English language. Amongst these twelve, were classes of Germans, Greeks, Italians, Russians, Turks and Rumanians. Such classes are found in the smaller cities as well as in the larger centres of population. The work is full of human interest owing to the varied life history of the students. In one case I saw among the pupils who were learning to speak and write English a student who in his own country had graduated with distinction. The method adopted in these classes is mainly conversational. An admirable set of readers is in use. The teachers engaged in this branch of the work struck me as especially capable, and their sympathetic and kindly manner with their pupils left a very pleasant impression.

All the teachers in the evening schools must hold evening School Teachers' licenses. These are granted by the City Board of Education, but only after a practical test of the applicant's knowledge and capacity for the work to be undertaken. This method of recruiting the teaching force for the evening schools seems to work well. In the classes for foreigners, the teachers are, as a rule, not engaged in day school work. In the City of New York, for example, out of a total of 1833 teachers, in elementary schools and evening high schools, 1,321 were specially licensed for evening school work only, and, of these, 523 were for the classes for foreigners.

(c) The Evening Classes in Division (c) mainly provide

for elementary instruction in commercial subjects. Those who complete one session's work in them are qualified for admission to the evening high or technical schools.

The best basis on which to judge of the general success of these elementary evening schools is regularity of attendance. Looked at from that point of view, the schools, though useful work is being done in many cases, cannot be said to attain a high standard. All the supervisors regret this weakness. The effects of it go further than mere irregularity. The progress of the class is retarded by the less earnest among the students, who discourage their more serious-minded fellows. The attendance in each of the three above-mentioned divisions of elementary evening schools is apt to be irregular.

In some cities, the evening classes are held on five nights in each week. In favour of this system it is urged that the habit of regular attendance is encouraged by it. The facts, however, seem to show that five nights a week are too many. The strain becomes too great. It is unreasonable to expect the student to attend evening school on five nights out of seven during the only hours of leisure which remain over from the claims of business. Business hours in America are as a rule longer than in England. To require attendance at the evening school for five nights a week is therefore an even more onerous demand there than it would be here. For this reason, the City of New York has reduced the required attendances at evening classes to four nights a week. I am inclined to think that the attendance would be improved if the number were still further reduced to three nights a week.

B. THE EVENING HIGH SCHOOLS.

To the Evening High School every student comes with a fair minimum of educational equipment. The schools

have as a rule a large membership, and are on a high plane of excellence. Some schools which I visited in the City of New York had enrolments of 2,200, 2,800, and 2,500 students. Enrolments in other cities were proportionately large.

The evening high schools are in a very real sense "continuation" schools. Students are asked to study two subjects, and usually make choice of such "subjects" as will help them to secure advancement in their daily work. The tone and atmosphere of these schools are good. The pupils may be sometimes indolent, but one never sees any roughness or rowdyism. As a rule the students give the impression of being thoroughly in earnest in their work.

The classes are commendably small. An attendance of fifteen students secures a permanent teacher, while in the elementary evening school an attendance of twenty is required. In the evening high school of Springfield (Mass.) an enrolment of ten students with an average attendance of seven is considered to be enough to justify the formation of a separate class, with responsible teacher.

The public high school buildings, in which these classes are held, are furnished with all the educational apparatus that modern requirements demand. The laboratories and workshops are made good use of, not only by chemists, electricians, and apprentices, but by many workmen who attend these classes in order to gain fuller practice and information than they can obtain in the workshops in which they are employed.

The subjects of study for which there is most demand, are, in order of choice:—(a) Commercial Subjects, (b) English, (c) Mathematics, (d) Drawing.

The extent of the course in the State of New York is now determined by a State Examination Board appointed by the Regents of the University of the State, and com-

posed of representatives of the colleges, and high schools, and of the administrative officers of city school systems. One of these evening high schools may be described as characteristic of the rest. The number of enrolled students was 2,200; but attendance had dropped to 600. There were 34 separate classes and teachers. The classes included in branch (a) Stenography, Book-keeping, Business Arithmetic, and Commercial Law, these being directed not only to make good book-keepers, but also to give a broad general training which would enable the students to take honourable positions in public life; in branch (b), English Grammar, Business Letter Writing, English Composition, Literature (including guidance in the use of Reference Books and of the Public Library), Rhetoric, Oratory, and Debate (aiming at training the power of vigorous thought and expression, with a study of great examples of eloquence); in branch (c), Algebra, Geometry (Solid and Plane), and Trigonometry; in branch (d), Architectural, Mechanical, and Freehand Drawing. There were also classes in Latin, French, German, Spanish, Practical Chemistry, Practical Physics, and History (including Political Economy and Civics).

Throughout my journey, I made careful enquiries as to the relation between employers and the evening schools. In the case of the Colleges and Universities, this connexion is particularly close. Especially is this so in the engineering industry. Last year the engineering schools at the Universities did not turn out a sufficiently large number of graduates to meet the demand of the employers. But in the case of the evening high schools there is at present no such close connexion with the employers of labour. It was therefore interesting to find that in the Drawing and Commercial departments of two of these schools, a Bureau of Industry was being formed, through which, it is hoped,

the students may be enabled to find employment in local workshops or offices. Such an attempt to strengthen the connexion between the schools and practical life deserves hearty encouragement.

In the evening high schools the work for girl and women students proceeds on the same general lines as that for youths and men. There is a preponderating demand for instruction in commercial subjects; but one satisfactory feature of evening high school work is the presence of many married women, as well as girls, learning Dress-making, Millinery, Household Economics and Cooking, and attending those scientific courses which bear especially upon women's work in the home. But classes in housewifery, including the study and care of children, a form of instruction which is now much encouraged in English cities, do not seem to be in vogue in America at the present time.

C. THE EVENING TECHNICAL AND TRADE SCHOOLS.

The evening technical and trade schools form the highest branch of evening school work and are at once the most specialised, and in many ways the most interesting. The work in these institutions is purely technical, and appeals to men and women more forcibly than any general course. All provide opportunity for practical work. Most distinctive among them are the schools usually named trade schools, although of these there are scarcely so many as might have been expected from the almost unexampled industrial competition in the United States. The trade schools at present existing are mostly experimental, but there is no doubt that the next few years will see a great development in this direction. These schools are mostly provided from public funds, but in many cases have been

founded by wealthy citizens for the instruction of the people in special directions.

Among the immigrants arriving daily in the United States, there is always a fair number of intelligent adult artisans, fully equipped for their work as done in their own country, but strange to many of the conditions of their trade as they find it practised in the United States. These men have, as a rule, left their native land through dissatisfaction with their prospects, and feel a strong determination to achieve success in their new home. To such men, the existence of evening technical schools is especially important, and the schools are likely to prove in this way increasingly valuable to the community as their organisation is more widely known. A further object of these evening technical schools is to give a more thorough training to American workmen. The present need in an industrial community is to have mechanics who not only know how to work a machine, but also understand the machine itself. The evening technical schools therefore aim at giving the workman a wider range of knowledge. They thus enable him to rise higher in his trade. Those in charge of the schools can give many instances of men who have risen to better paid positions and to posts of higher importance in their trade through the instruction received at the school. Usually such schools receive the approval of the local associations of workmen. Thus at Springfield (Mass) the Master Plumbers' Association gives preference to those who hold the trade school's certificate of satisfactory study. The iron workers and wood workers cordially approve of the trade school, and support it to the fullest extent. In the City of New York two new trade schools have lately been opened. The need for more is already felt. The attendance at the trade schools is as a rule remarkably good. Springfield, with 300 students,

has an average attendance of about 84 per cent. The corresponding percentages are in Buffalo about 63 per cent., in Boston about 78 per cent., and in New York between 50 and 60 per cent. The teachers are all practical men. The classes most in demand are machine-shop practice and tool-making. The classes in mechanical and architectural drawing, in plumbing, and in applied electricity come next in order of popularity. In the toolmaking, patternmaking, and electricity sections a fee of about £1. is demanded to cover the cost of necessary tools. At the end of the session the school's certificate is accepted by the workmen's organisations as showing the holder to be a fully practised workman. The schools are therefore a great advantage to the individual workman, in that they improve the quality of his work by giving him a wider range of practical knowledge, and enable him to obtain a higher and better paid position in his trade.

A full list of the subjects taken in some such schools includes shop-mathematics, mechanical and architectural drawing, industrial chemistry, applied physics, electricity, joinery and woodturning, blacksmithing, printing, and typesetting.

In each section of the technical evening school, a satisfactory session's work entitles the student to a sessional certificate. In some cities, the completion of an approved course of study in evening high schools extending over three (or in some cases, four) years entitles a student to a diploma from the City Board of Education.

I was unable to investigate personally the character of the evening classes carried on by more independent committees in institutions such as the branches of the Young Men's Christian Association. But in every city the Y.M.C.A. has branches, in connexion with which classes in both practical and literary subjects are held. These

appear to be well attended. Other privately managed institutions like the Cooper Institute of New York, have a waiting list of applicants for many classes. At the Cooper Institute, as in some similar institutions, the diploma won by persistent study is almost of the rank and value of a University Degree.

In many evening schools there are libraries quite distinct from those for use in the day schools. These libraries are of great value to the students in the literary classes. They are worked in connexion with the public library of the city.

To sum up, the work of evening schools in the States of New York and Massachusetts is carried on with great vigour of purpose. It enjoys the support of the Boards of Education, of the general public and, to some extent, of the employers. The advantages offered to the students are many: the buildings are excellent and well equipped, the classes are small; the teachers are admirable and desirous of doing their best for their pupils. The great blot is the irregularity of the attendance. When this has been improved by a closer connexion between the schools and the trades, the future of the American evening school system should be a bright one.

WILLIAM SCOTT.

SHORT LIST OF BOOKS.

- Dexter, E. G. "History of Education in the United States" (New York, Macmillan Company, 1904), pp. 541-5 (Evening Schools), pp. 545-9 (Correspondence Schools), p. 549, Bibliography.
- "U.S. Commissioner of Education, Report of" (Washington, 1907), 1907, vol. i, pp. 502-6 (Statistics of Evening Schools).
- "National Educational Association, Journal of Proceedings" (Winona, Minn.), 1905, pp. 570-576. "Industrial Training in Public Evening Schools, by C. F. Warner.

APPENDIX.

EVENING SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Summary of Statistics of Evening Schools in Cities of 8,000 population and over, 1904-5.¹

	United States.	North Atlantic Division.	South Atlantic Division.	South Central Division.	North Central Division.	Western Division.	Massachusetts.	New York.	Selected States. New Jersey. Pennsylvania. Illinois. California.
Number of Cities reporting									
Evening Schools ...	180	125	8	8	28	11	46	19	15
Number of Schools ...	922	702	31	13	153	23	305	118	124
Teachers:									
Men ...	2,593	2,049	95	19	363	67	564	1,001	83
Women ...	3,979	3,243	84	34	544	74	1,212	851	305
Total ...	6,572	5,292	179	53	907	141	1,776	1,852	441
Pupils:									
Men and Boys ...	177,474	138,616	1,874	1,828	27,213	7,943	34,239	79,884	12,098
Women and Girls ...	177,541	65,428	1,003	401	8,870	1,839	18,087	38,475	4,706
Not reported as to Sex	37,304	30,486	6,645	—	65	108	2,175	140	910
Total ...	392,319	204,530	9,522	2,229	36,148	9,890	54,501	118,499	17,714
Number of above not in attendance at day schools	285,671	229,599	9,522	2,192	35,282	9,076	50,198	118,422	17,373
Average daily attendance ...	107,375	82,461	3,232	734	17,760	3,188	24,800	33,015	6,961

1. Taken from the "Report of the Commissioner of Education (U.S.A.) for the year ending June 30, 1905, vol. i., Chapter XIX.

Statistics of City School Systems Table 10, page 502.

2. The States included in each of the five divisions are as follows:—

North Atlantic Division—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania.

South Atlantic Division—Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia.

South Central Division—Kentucky, Tennessee, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas.

North Central Division—Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska.

Western Division—Colorado, Utah, Washington, Oregon, California.

CHAPTER XXIII.

The Trend towards Industrial Training in Continuation Schools in New England.

• I.

AT several points in our educational history the experience and judgment of New England have exerted a strong influence upon English opinion. Any marked trend of educational thought in Massachusetts is likely to prove, sooner or later, of significance to ourselves. At the present time two aspects of the school problem are commanding special attention in the industrial and commercial centres of New England. The first is the need for more manual and practical education for boys intended for industrial callings. The second is the social and economic danger of leaving young people without continued educational care during the years immediately following the day-school course. Mr. James Phinney Munroe, President of the Social Education Club of Boston, who, as chairman of the Executive Committee of the Social Education Congress held in that city on November 30—December 2, 1906, has exceptional opportunities of gauging the force of public opinion on these matters, writes: "There is a very general interest throughout the State in the question of the better education of children who are to go into industrial pursuits, and especially in the problem (more moral than industrial) of making provision for the army of boys and girls between the end of the compulsory school period (14 years) and the time (18) when most of the skilled industries are willing to take them in. It is during those four years that most of our social shipwreck occurs,

with enormous loss to the community. Substantially all the important writing and speaking in Massachusetts upon educational matters now refers to this general problem and never, as it seems to me, has there been such a cordial and thoughtful response from the public." The same questions are engaging close attention in Scotland, Germany and France, the three other countries from which waves of educational influence have repeatedly reached England. It is therefore not hazardous to predict that with us also these questions, already much discussed, will soon demand legislative treatment.

Within the last two years there have been in Massachusetts several significant expressions of opinion upon the need for more industrial training in continuation schools for boys and girls. The first is that contained in the report of the commission on Industrial and Technical Education, published in 1906. The second is a paper written by the Superintendent of Schools in one of the towns most renowned for educational efficiency in Massachusetts. The third was at the Social Education Congress in Boston in December, 1906. The fourth was an address given by Dr. Paul Hanus, Professor of Education in Harvard University, to the members of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers at Boston on February 6, 1907. It is noticeable that the successful work of the continuation schools in Germany, and especially of those organised under the guidance of Stadtschulrat, Dr. Kerschensteiner at Munich, is producing a deep impression upon American opinion. The Governor of the State of Massachusetts has appointed a special commission for Industrial Education which will take further and practical steps for the extension of industrial training. Of this Commission, Professor Hanus has been appointed Chairman.

In this chapter these indications of a fast-maturing opinion are briefly reviewed.

II.

A Commission on Industrial and Technical Education appointed by the State of Massachusetts, in 1905, presented its report in April, 1906.¹ In the course of their inquiry the Commissioners held twenty public hearings in the chief cities of the State and received oral testimony from 143 witnesses. Among the latter were Sir William Mather of Manchester and Mr. E. Swaysland of Northampton.

The investigation disclosed a widespread conviction that there is need for more industrial training in the school system of Massachusetts.

"The Commission was made aware of a growing feeling of the inadequacy of the existing school system to meet fully the need of modern industrial and social conditions. The opinion was expressed by many speakers that the schools are too exclusively literary in their spirit, scope and methods. When there was not a pronounced opinion, there was a vague feeling of dissatisfaction with results. This does not imply hostility. Everywhere the Commission found the people loyal to the purpose of the schools and proud of the advanced position which the State has held, and they do not complain of the cost. They hesitate to criticise and are far from desiring any revolutionary change; but they are inquiring whether some modifications may not be possible, by which the schools may reach in a more practical way the great body of children and youths."²

The view that more industrial training is required was held by many different kinds of witnesses. Manufacturers and wage earners felt the personal need.

"The Commission was told at almost every hearing that in many industries the processes of manufacture and construction are made more difficult and more expensive by a lack of skilled workmen. The lack is not chiefly a want of manual dexterity, though such a want is common, but a want of what may be called industrial intelligence. By this is meant mental power to see beyond the task which occupies the hands for the moment to the operations which have preceded and to those which will follow it—power to take in the whole process, knowledge of materials, ideas of cost, ideas of organisation, business sense and a conscience which recognises obligations. . . . Manufacturers confidently

1. Boston (Wright and Potter Printing Co., 18, Post Office Square), 1906.

2. Report, p. 5.

believe that a system of industrial education wisely planned would tend to develop such intelligence, while it increased technical skill. That large numbers among wage earners have the same faith was shown to the Commission by numerous representatives who testified before it, and by the statistics showing the number of men and women who are now availing themselves of existing opportunities. The number of workmen in the evening classes of the textile schools in the State; the experience of the Evening Trade School in Springfield and of those in New York and Philadelphia; the large classes maintained by the Young Men's Christian Association; and the enormous number seeking to advance themselves through technical education in the Correspondence Schools (a number estimated at fifty-five thousand in Massachusetts) prove that the interest is real and vital."¹

The same view was held by witnesses who approached the question from another standpoint.

"Men and women who have been brought into intimate contact with the harder side of life as it appears among the poorer people in the cities, who are grappling with the variety of problems of childhood to which city life gives rise, think they see in some form of industrial education a means of securing earlier and greater efficiency as wage earners, more self-reliance and self respect, steadier habits of industry and frugality, and through these the opening of avenues to better industrial and social conditions.

The broader-minded students of education, men who look at their own work in the light of all its relations to society and to individuals, are coming more and more to feel that education is more than schooling of the old-fashioned type; and that for the fullest development of a child he must early and continuously be regarded as a member of the whole community, must be familiar with all its activities, and must be taught progressively to share in those activities, giving as well as receiving, producing as well as consuming, doing as well as learning. They see that this sort of training is used in the education of the feeble-minded, in the reformation of wayward and vicious children at reform and truant schools, and that it is being used to elevate the coloured race in the south; and they ask why it may not be equally efficient in stimulating and directing the higher orders of mind, in preventing as well as curing juvenile delinquency, and in improving the social conditions of white as well as black children."

The Commissioners reviewed the present status of vocational training in Massachusetts in the following words:

"All the callings in life for which children and youth need to be specially prepared may be roughly grouped into four classes—professional, commercial, productive and domestic.

Of these, the professional callings are sufficiently provided for, partly at public and partly at private expense. A large part of the burden of high school maintenance is incurred in the interests of professional callings.

The activities which may be classed as commercial, including all that

have to do with the processes of distribution and exchange, are provided for largely at public expense. The schools send out salesmen, clerks, book-keepers, typewriters and stenographers in ever-increasing numbers. These are the occupations which allow clean hands and good clothes. If anything is lacking in this business training, it is special education in the principles and practice of expert salesmanship. A beginning of such instruction has been made in Boston.

Turning to the occupations engaged in production, in distinction from distribution, we find that these are only touched educationally in their most advanced and scientific forms. No instruction whatever is furnished at public expense in the principles or practice of farming, dairying, gardening, the building trades, cabinet making, machine shop practice, boot and shoe making, tanning, printing, book-binding, dressmaking, millinery, embroidery, design.

Agriculture is recognised by the State in its aid to the Agricultural College at Amherst; but there is no preparatory work leading up to it, in the same way as the high schools lead up to the other colleges.

Manufacturing is recognised by the State in so far as it aids by scholarship and direct grants the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Worcester Polytechnic Institute. These institutions train mechanical and electrical engineers, manufacturing chemists, and architects—men in the highest ranks of productive industrial life.

For these institutions the high schools offer some preparation in their scientific courses. The institutions themselves have fully justified all that they have cost. Their fame is world-wide, and the State is honoured by them.

Manufacturing interests are still further aided by the recently-established textile schools at Lowell, opened in 1897; at New Bedford, opened in 1899; and at Fall River, opened in 1904. These schools, in their organisation, mode of support and general methods, might well serve as models for higher technical schools in other industries. The schools have been established by the State and the city. They are supported partly by annual grants by the State and the city, and partly by tuition fees from the students. They are governed by bodies of permanent trustees, some of whom represent the Commonwealth. The cities are represented in the government by certain ex-officio trustees.

Further efforts of a private and benevolent nature are as follows:—

The Massachusetts Charitable Mechanic Association maintains an evening trade school for young men, most of whom are regularly employed as apprentices or helpers in the trades they are studying.

There are classes in masonry, carpentering, plumbing and sheet metal work, including about one hundred students. A small part of the expense of the school is met by fees from the students.

The Woman's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston maintains day classes in millinery, dressmaking and salesmanship. Some of these are distinctly trade classes; others are of a more general character.

The Boston Trade School for Girls is supported by a society of women who rely upon donations from interested people to meet the expenses. There are no fees from the students. Girls are instructed in dressmaking, millinery and machine operating in all-day classes.

The Wells Memorial Institute maintains free evening classes in electricity, steam and steam engines, mechanical and machine drawing, household science, millinery, dressmaking and photography. There were registered in these classes in 1905 twelve hundred and twenty persons.

The Boston Young Men's Christian Association maintains what it calls an evening institute, which includes four separate schools of a

technical character—a school of commerce, a polytechnic school, a school of applied electricity and steam engineering, and an automobile school. Each of these schools includes numerous departments. The number of students is large. The Young Men's Christian Associations throughout the State support evening classes in various technical subjects. In all these classes the students pay a part of the cost of the instruction.

The Bost'n North End Union, a charitable organisation, maintains evening classes in plumbing and day classes in printing. The North Bennet Street Industrial School conducts evening classes in sewing and printing, reaching in all about forty men and two hundred women.

Besides these, instruction in wood-working, printing, clay modelling, cooking, sewing and other forms of industrial training is given to classes of children by churches of different orders; and there are in different parts of the State private schools or classes for persons employed in different trades, as in some of the sub-divisions of boot and shoe making, steam and electrical engineering, etc."¹

The Commissioners conclude that as compared with the opportunities afforded in some parts of Europe for acquiring knowledge and skill in productive industry, the work which is being done in Massachusetts is "strikingly and painfully inadequate.

They point out that in former times the general training given in the schools of New England and the vocational training given through apprenticeship were mutually co-operative with and supplementary to one another. It is true that the training then given would be inadequate to present needs. But it is desirable to restore the balance in a manner appropriate to modern conditions. The disappearance of apprenticeship has left the school training isolated and one sided. Moreover changes in social conditions have aggravated the evil.

"The effects of the giving up of the apprentice system have all been aggravated by the congestion of population in cities. City life instead of rural life, life in tenements and flats instead of in houses, together with the increase of wealth, have combined to deprive great numbers of children of those opportunities for industrial activity which were inseparable from life on the farm. Well-to-do people are everywhere lamenting that there is nothing for the children to do. The children are always receiving and never giving. Food, clothing, shelter, education, amusement—all come to them as freely as the air and the sunshine.

The effects of these changes repeatedly brought to the attention of the Commission are not most serious where we might naturally expect in a lack of manual efficiency, though that is marked, but on the intellectual and moral side. There is a one-sided sense of values, a one-sided view of life, and a wrong attitude toward labour. Not having any share in productive labour, and being out of touch with it, the youth have no standards by which to measure time or possessions or pleasures in terms of cost. Many persons believe that about this point centre some of the gravest of present-day social problems.¹

The Commissioners found that their purpose and work "encountered the suspicion and hostility of many of the labour unions of the State."

"This was expressed by individual members and by accredited representatives, and was evidently due to misapprehension. It was suspected that the Commission was created to formulate a plan for trade schools supported at public expense. The opposition to such schools is based on the fear that they would furnish workmen in numbers sufficiently large to affect the labour market, and bring about a lowering of wages. These schools are also opposed on the ground that they might furnish workmen ready to take the place of union men during the existence of a strike. 'Scab hatching' is the significant term by which such schools are characterised. To such schools the labour unions declare themselves totally and unalterably opposed.

The objection urged by the unions is fully met by the closing paragraph of Sir William Mather's address: -

Please take notice of what I said about the avoidance of teaching a trade to the extent of causing a lad to say, after leaving the industrial school, 'I am a printer,' 'I am a cotton spinner,' 'I am a mechanic or a carpenter.' In the first place, it is detrimental to the lad's own interests. He becomes somewhat conceited before he has got through the proper training by actual practice. It tends to deterioration of skill and intelligence in trades, which can only be fully acquired through work done on a commercial scale. It will tend to discredit industrial education.

To technical schools in distinction from trade schools the Commission found little opposition. In fact, many of the union men expressed themselves heartily in favour of schools which would offer to men already engaged in industries the opportunity to broaden their knowledge of the principles of their trade. This would tend to increase the efficiency of the workers in a given trade, while the closed door was maintained against outsiders.

At one or two of the hearings, individuals, while not opposed to technical education in this narrow sense, would not favour it, believing that American workmen are already sufficiently skilful and sufficiently intelligent. It was declared that they have nothing more to learn."²

The Commissioners arrived at the following conclusions, which were based in part upon a special and detailed investigation into the relations of children to industries.

"1. For the great majority of children who leave school to enter employments at the age of fourteen or fifteen, the first three or four years are practically waste years so far as the actual productive value of the child is concerned, and so far as increasing his industrial or productive efficiency. The employments upon which they enter demand so little intelligence and so little manual skill that they are not educative in any sense.

For these children, many of whom now leave school from their own choice at the completion of the seventh grade, further school training of a practical character would be attractive and would be a possibility if it prepared for the industries. Hence any scheme of education which is to increase the child's productive efficiency must consider the child of fourteen.

2. Children who continue in school until sixteen or eighteen, especially if they complete a high school course, are able to enter upon employments of a higher grade, usually in mercantile pursuits, and they are able by reason of greater maturity and better mental training to learn the technique of their employment in a shorter time; but they are wholly lacking in manual skill and in what we have called industrial intelligence. For the purpose of training for efficiency in productive employments the added years they spend in school are to a considerable extent lost years.

In the cases of both classes of children the employment upon which they enter on leaving school is determined by chance.

3. The productive industries of the State, including agriculture, manufactures and building, depend mainly upon chance for recruiting their service. A few apprenticeships still exist in a few industries or parts of industries, but very few apprentices are indentured, and many so-called apprenticeships are falsely named.

The knowledge and skill which the new men bring to the service of any industry is only what they have picked up in a haphazard way. Some bring much and many bring little.

4. This condition tends to increase the cost of production, to limit the output in quantity and to lower the grade in quality. Industries so recruited cannot long compete with similar industries recruited from men who have been technically trained. In the long run that industry, wherever in the world it is located, which combines with general intelligence the broadest technical knowledge and the highest technical skill, will command the markets of the world.

5. The industries of Massachusetts need, in addition to the general intelligence furnished by the public school system and the skill gained in the narrow fields of sub-divided labour, a broader training in the principles of the trades and a finer culture in taste as applied to material, workmanship and design. Whatever may be the cost of such training, the failure to furnish it would in the end be more costly.

6. The State needs a wider diffusion of industrial intelligence as a foundation for the highest technical success, and this can only be acquired in connection with the general system of education into which it should enter as an integral part from the beginning.

The latest philosophy of education re-enforces the demands of productive industry by showing that that which fits a child best for his place in the world as a producer tends to his own highest development physically, intellectually and morally.

7. The investigation has shown the increasing necessity for a woman to enter the industrial world for the sake of self-support, and hence that she should be prepared to earn a respectable living wage, and at the same time that the attempt should be made to fit her so that she

can and will enter those industries which are most closely allied to the home.

The investigation has shown that that vocation in which all other vocations have their root, namely, the care of the home, has been overlooked in the modern system of education. In order that the industrial life of the community may be vigorous and progressive, the housekeepers need to be instructed in the laws of sanitation, in the purchase, preparation and care of food, and in the care of children, that the home may be a home, and not merely a house."

The Commission therefore recommended that industrial education in Massachusetts should now be further developed, partly through the existing school system and partly through independent industrial schools. In the elementary schools of cities and towns the work for boys and girls should include instruction and practice in the elements of productive industry including the mechanic and domestic arts (and, where local conditions require, agriculture also) but this instruction should be of such a character as to secure from it cultural as well as industrial value. In the high schools, the instruction in mathematics, in science and in drawing, should show the application and use of these subjects in industrial life, with especial reference to local industries, and new "elective" courses of instruction in the domestic and industrial arts (and, where desirable, in agriculture) should be provided. Evening courses should be arranged for persons already employed in trades. And provision should be made for the instruction, in part-daytime classes, of children between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, who may be employed during the remainder of the day. The Commission makes this last recommendation with a view to instruction in the principles and practice of the industrial arts going on together.

They also recommend that a Commission on Industrial Education should be appointed, to serve for five years without pay. This Commission, they advise, should be charged with the duty of extending the investigation into

methods of industrial training and into local needs. It is recommended that the Commission should be given power to establish and maintain industrial schools for boys and girls in various centres of the State with the co-operation and consent of the municipality or concerned municipalities. Money appropriated for the purpose by the State or Municipalities should be expended under the direction of the Commission. There would thus be distinctively industrial schools, separated entirely from the public school system.

III.

The School Superintendent, to whom reference has been made above, maintains that the public elementary schools of to-day fail to furnish opportunities for the kind and extent of education which the present industrial and social conditions, demand.

"Pupils who have only completed the elementary school course (and that is more than the great majority do even in Massachusetts) are in no way fitted to profit by the instruction given by the institutions for higher technological instruction. So they must enter with no training the great industrial army of the country. They enter it, of course, as unskilled labourers, and such many remain all their lives. The more fortunate, more able, or more persevering, learn in years what they might have learned in weeks or months under suitable systematic instruction.

The usual maximum age prescribed in compulsory attendance laws is fourteen years. At this age the average pupil can complete the usual elementary school course. Teachers, ambitious parents, and educational enthusiasts, are wont to urge the young people to continue their education through the High School, and to go on to college, if possible. The only excuse for urging this particular kind of schooling so indiscriminately, is the inaccessibility of any other. Even at present, I believe it is often a mistake. Many a pupil in our High Schools, and some in our elementary schools, would be getting what would be for them a better education if they were in some useful occupation. They would be getting an education, a training, better adapted to 'the preservation of a free government' than the 'knowledge and learning' afforded by the schools. A much larger number would certainly be better educated in suitable elementary industrial schools than in our present scholastic schools. Such elementary industrial schools would unquestionably raise the general level of public intelligence."

The writer points out that the great demand for practical instruction through the "correspondence schools" proves

the need for the further provision of industrial training in properly equipped institutions.

"The independent efforts which the people are making to supply for themselves that kind of education which the times demand, but which the public schools fail to furnish, are indicated by, numerous thriving correspondence schools which have recently sprung up in many places. They already enrol hundreds of thousands of students, more than all the colleges and universities combined. A single one offers 'training by mail' for the following score of occupations :—

Advertising Writer,
 Show Card Writer,
 Window Trimmer,
 Mechanical Draughtsman,
 Architectural Draughtsman,
 Illustrator Draughtsman,
 Carpet Designer,
 Bookcover Designer,
 Civil Service,
 Chemist,
 Commercial Law for Clerks and Stenographers,
 Bookkeeper,
 Stenographer,
 Electrical Engineer,
 Mechanical Engineer,
 Civil Engineer,
 Surveyor,
 Mining Engineer,
 Architect,
 Building Contractor,
 Sanitary Engineer.

A large majority of the correspondence school students are mechanics and labourers, trying to fit themselves for better and higher service in the industrial world.

Instruction by correspondence, when met with the intense earnestness of the student, can do a great deal. It must, however, suffer from serious handicaps, in most subjects, when compared with what can be done in a properly equipped school. Such schools we have, here and there, just enough to demonstrate their efficiency, but totally inadequate to supply the demand for their product. Such schools are the Textile Schools at Lowell, Fall River, and Philadelphia; the New York Trade School, the Williamson Free School of Mechanical Trades, and the Manhattan Trade School for Girls. The director of one of these Trade Schools reports it no uncommon thing to see young apprentices, with instruction equivalent in hours to only three weeks' work at their trade, do things that journeymen mechanics, with four or five years of experience, cannot equal. Six months in the Manhattan Trade School for Girls has increased the girls' earning power 100 per cent., and put them in the way of further advancement."

Professor Haunus of Harvard University in his address to the National Association of Wool Manufacturers at Boston on February 6th, 1907, urged that there is "need to supplement the existing educational system with a new kind of

educational provision to meet new educational needs." The years of adolescence are too often wasted years.

"The great mass of our youthful population leave school at about fourteen or fifteen years of age. For the next few years these boys and girls drift about in various kinds of youthful occupations where they learn nothing that increases their earning capacity. As economic units, as productive units, they have very little value indeed at fourteen or fifteen years of age. And, having chosen the occupations which they have, or rather having drifted into them, by the time they are eighteen or nineteen years of age their economic value is little more than it was when they began. Those years are, as far as their economic efficiency is concerned, wasted years; because the children have learned nothing that will develop productive efficiency, and because they are not preparing to meet the demand for skilled labour which is constantly increasing. And, worse than that, not having been under any systematic educational influence, certainly not under any beneficial educational influence, speaking generally, what they have learned up to the time they are fourteen or fifteen years of age has been dissipated by the time they are eighteen or nineteen; and they are actually more ignorant when they reach the age of citizenship than when they left school. Some of these boys, of course, go on to the high school and there receive a kind of education which, with increased maturity, renders them able to master more easily the processes and methods of any occupation to which they go. But neither the grammar school nor the high school meets any specific vocational end.

The result is, that there is in Massachusetts to-day an army of not less than 25,000 boys and girls from fourteen to sixteen years of age who are not in school but either at unskilled work or idle; and for whom those years, therefore, which I have referred to are lost or wasted years. Moreover, there is an increasing demand for skilled workmen. I have been told repeatedly during the last few months by employers that if they could find the skilled workmen they need, they could greatly enlarge their plants and output, to say nothing of improving the quality of the goods which they produce. There is, therefore, on the side of the producer and on the side of the workman an increasing need, an imperative need for the kind of education that will, first of all, make prominent the vocational purpose to which I have referred; and which will, in the next place, carry out that purpose or help the youth to carry it out before he gets beyond the reach of the trade.

The existing public schools very naturally are bookish. They are bookish because at the time when they started, book education was all that was necessary in the schools. The home conditions, whether on the farm, in the village, or in the city, supplied a kind of education which to-day is for most boys and girls impossible. Our population is becoming an urban population. The boys no longer do the chores they used to do. The girls, many of them, are no longer required to do the work which they used to do as an inevitable part of their experience. They are, consequently, losing a kind of education which they got a generation or two ago. They are losing all that opportunity for what we call 'practical education' and are securing only the bookish education of the schools with all their academic traditions of the schools. My point is that, alone, those traditions are inadequate to meet the conditions which face us to-day. There is a great mass of our population which must go to work early. For that mass of population we are not providing the kind of education that will make them the sort of progressive economic units that we desire. And, consequently, the need

of supplementing the existing educational provision by a kind of school which may be called an industrial school or a school of trades exists."

Professor Hanus proceeded to show how successfully this educational problem had been grappled with at Munich, "a city about the size of Boston, without its suburbs." He then summed up his conclusions in the following words.

"1. The progressive development of all high grade industries requires skilled workmen possessing industrial intelligence, that is, comprehensive insight into and intelligent interest in their several trades, as well as skill.

2. The present conditions of production are unfavourable to the training of such workmen in the shop or factory, and sometimes render such training impossible.

3. All industries, whatever their grade, need more men than are now obtainable who are capable of acting as foremen, superintendents or managers—men possessing the comprehensive insight, interest and skill necessary for the organisation and direction of a department or a shop.

4. Such men, whether workers, foremen or superintendents are now developed only by chance—and they are then only self-made men, possessing the merits, but also the conspicuous shortcomings of their training.

5. Meanwhile, boys and girls, young men and young women are not only not directed toward the trades in our existing schools but are often actually directed away from them by the bookish education of those schools and their purely academic traditions. The manual training high schools or so-called technical high schools were intended originally to train recruits for the trades, but they have not done so and cannot do so. And I may add they need not do so. The manual training of the manual training high school is too general to be of use in the trades; but it serves a very valuable purpose indeed in general education. Manual training is an educational instrument, just as chemistry is, just as history is; with materials of its own to work with, with methods of its own to use, with problems of its own to be solved. Experience has shown that an insignificant number of the pupils who go through the manual training high school enter the trades. Most of them go into business or to an engineering school. And those schools, therefore, serve a very valuable purpose, because many of the boys who seek an education in the manual training high school would not get a high school education at all except for the manual training. And the academic studies become intelligible to them when they are presented in connection with certain concrete problems. Manual training high schools, then, have not recruited the trades, and cannot. They are institutions for general education, like the academic high schools, but unlike them serve to give a certain class of pupils a general high school education with the help of manual training, or like them to prepare their pupils for professional training in some college or engineering school. Moreover, the great majority of our youth must, or think they must, begin to be wage-earners at an early age.

6. Boys are not wanted in the industries until they are sixteen years of age. The result is an army of young men and young women (in Massachusetts not less than 25,000 every year) from fourteen to sixteen years of age, most of whom are either at work in various kinds of juvenile occupations in which they learn no trade, or subject to little,

if any, beneficial general education, and often to much harmful education from shifting experience and environment. The majority of these children would be in school if the school promised preparation for some life pursuit. That is a fact ascertain by investigators and clearly shown by the Industrial Education Commission, which reported to the Legislature of Massachusetts last year. These years are of little economic value to such children, and there is little increase in the economic value of most of them as time goes on. Hence these are at present 'lost years'—lost to the children because of non-progressive economic growth, and to the industries, because the children are not fitted to satisfy the demand for skilled labour by the time they are old enough to be employed in such labour.

7. These years, and the subsequent years, are, however, valuable for industrial education, but there is at present no agency whereby this education is provided save to a limited extent by philanthropy, or by an occasional municipality, or large manufacturing establishments, or by correspondence. The superintendent of the Stanley works at Pittsfield told me that out of their seventeen hundred employees, three hundred were taking correspondence courses. I do not wish to decry correspondence courses, but they are obviously only a makeshift. Moreover, they frequently fail to enable the pupil who enrolls in them to realise the results which he could secure through a prescribed course with a teacher at hand.

8. Hence the need of industrial schools to supplement the existing school system and to meet a new educational need which has evolved with the evolution of our industry and commerce. Such schools would receive pupils fourteen or fifteen years of age who declare their intention to learn a trade; and would, therefore, be parallel to the existing public high schools but independent of them.

9. Such schools must be independent schools because the motive or end for which they exist, namely, vocational training as contrasted with the general training of the existing public schools, determines the value of the instruction in every detail.

10. Such schools would offer a course of study covering four years. The first two years would comprise general shop instruction with related drawing, mathematics, natural science, the history of industry and commerce, shop and business English, and the reading of appropriate articles and books. The last two years would give the shop instruction for particular trades; and for each trade represented the drawing, mathematics, physics, chemistry of that trade, the history of that trade, treated both as special history and as a branch of general history, civics treated as concretely as possible, and English as before. The result of training in such schools would be workmen who, at eighteen or nineteen, have learned a trade, though they would not be skilled journeymen; they need practice to fully develop the skill which is required of journeymen. Each such workman would have command of his trade and not merely of a part of it; and he would have the industrial insight and interest on which progressive efficiency is based. An evening school of trades for men and women already employed would be an important part of every such school.

Massachusetts has taken the lead, as a State, to secure such schools throughout the Commonwealth. Governor Guild, empowered by a statute, appointed a Commission on Industrial Education in September of last year; and this Commission is now engaged in promoting the establishment of State subsidised industrial schools in the towns and cities of the State."

1. "Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers," Boston, March 1907, pp. 29.

IV.

During the past half-century, the signal achievement of the public elementary school in its best democratic form has lain in its work of social liberation and of social encouragement. It has given new opportunities of self-realisation. Its economic service, at a period when individual buoyancy and initiative were especially needed, has been immense. But still greater has been its work in stimulating a belief in ideals among great multitudes of people who would otherwise have been in danger of falling into a state of intellectual indifference bordering on materialism. At a period of rapid intellectual and social transition, it has furnished new motives of action and new hopes for the future. It has helped forward those who were economically and morally strong enough to avail themselves of the new opportunities to which it has opened the door. It has scoured away many prejudices and unreal distinctions. It has cleared the ground for new foundations. But its work has been least successful among the morally weak and among those lacking in vigour of personal initiative. •

Side by side with the public elementary school we in England have had the industrial school. Its training has been in the main through handicraft, combined with the brisk discipline of a strictly-ordered but not unhappy form of community life. It has succeeded, and that to a remarkable degree, with the very children in whose case the education given in the ordinary schools had failed. Should we not now make wider use of the experience which the industrial schools have gained? Is it not desirable that trial should be made in certain districts of a new type of elementary school with far more practical and constructive work in its curriculum, with a great deal of physical training, with an active corporate life, and with simpler aims

in regard to more literary studies? For many of the children in our elementary schools in England the present curriculum is too ambitious, and something simpler and more practical would stand them in better stead. Those men will be in the long run among our sanest citizens and firmest characters who have learnt to do their day's work as well as it can be done, and who have gained at the elementary and continuation school a desire to be good engineers, good carpenters, good plumbers, good builders, good farmers, or good servants; finding in practical efficiency the best preparation for the tasks of citizenship in a self-governing community.

At the same time it is essential to watch for signs of special talent among all the children attending the nation's schools, and to provide for every boy and girl of marked intellectual or artistic promise, however humbly born, the fullest opportunity for the highest and most fitting education. England has always drawn some of her finest ability from humble homes, and we should do more, far more, than is done at present to help very liberally, and very long, the best talent when we find it. The "educational ladder" is a necessary part of a nation's educational ideal; but skilled manual labour and craftsmanship are not dark caverns out of which every boy of bright intelligence should be encouraged to climb.

Again, let us not identify the world for which we seek to train every child solely with the world of material interests and of visible things. Let us not forget, in our educational plans, the weight that should be attached to the claims of the spiritual realm, whose frontiers transcend political frontiers and whose commonwealth is in heaven.

Those who are now engaged in teaching and in educational administration feel on their minds the pressure of

three different claims. They feel the pressure of the claim of the individual for the development of personality and for such trainings as will secure economic independence. They feel also the pressure of the claim of the State for national organisation and for the economic strength which comes through individual energy and trustworthiness in associated effort. Thirdly, they feel the pressure of the claim of one or other of the great international brotherhoods of like-thinking or like-feeling men and women. We must admit the justice of each claim. Any one of the three, if pressed alone, is hurtful and mischievous. But each claim, rightly understood and seen in due proportion, is valid, and it is by a fine tact and sympathy that the teacher will decide what weight must in any given case or at any given time be attached to any one of them. All true education combines opposites, and is a unity made up of many diverse forces. The three claims may be harmonized by that give-and-take which is of the essence of political wisdom and also of true education.

SHORT LIST OF BOOKS.

- "Industrial and Technical Education, Report of Commission appointed by State of Massachusetts on." (Boston, Wright and Potter Printing Co.), 1906.
- "Social Education Quarterly" (Colin A. Scott, Boston Normal School, Boston), March 1907, especially "Trade Schools, an Educational and Industrial Necessity," by Mary Schenck Woolman.
- "What a City owes to its Boys," by G. H. Martin.
- "New Duties and Opportunities for the Public Schools," by S. McC. Lindsay.

CHAPTER XXIV.

The Limits of Compulsory Education in the United States.

THE planning and provision of courses of further training for boys and girls during the critical years which follow the elementary day-school course bids fair to become one of the chief educational problems in all countries where the population is largely urbanised, and where the industrial system is highly developed. In the discussion of the question, however, economic and industrial considerations call for as close inquiry as the purely educational. Among the data which need to be taken into account are the laws which now fix the limits of compulsory school attendance and those which protect children and young persons from premature or excessive labour. In view of the variety of the laws of school attendance, etc., in different parts of the United States, the following summary and accompanying tables may be found useful for reference. At the end of the tables will be found a statement of the number of children between 10 and 16 years of age who were found by the enumerators engaged in the United States Census in 1900 to be "earning money regularly by labour, contributing to the family support, or appreciably assisting in mechanical or agricultural industry."

In twenty-one out of the forty-seven States included in the following table (which refers to the period ending December 31st, 1906) the upper age limit fixed by law for compulsory attendance at school is 14. These twenty-one States are Arizona, California, District of Columbia, Idaho,

Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In seven States—Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Nebraska, Rhode Island, Vermont and Washington—the upper age limit is fixed at 15; in five—Colorado, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania and Utah—at 16; in one—Minnesota—at 18; and in one—Wyoming—at 21. In the remaining twelve States—Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland, North Carolina,¹ South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia—there is no general compulsory attendance law.

But these figures must not be accepted, without some qualification, as representing the exact state of the case as regards compulsory attendance in the United States. Certain other facts require to be considered along with them.

(1) The school attendance laws are, generally speaking, in advance of the laws which regulate the employment of children. There seems to be a general tendency to make the minimum age for employment in the Northern States 14 years (16 in mines) and about two years less in the Southern States.

(2) There are various recognized exceptions to the compulsory attendance laws in several States, especially in those with a high age limit. In Rhode Island, for instance, the upper age limit of 15 is not applicable to children over 13 who are lawfully employed. In other States, where the limit is 16, similar exceptions are allowed, *e.g.*, to children from 14 to 16 whose labour is necessary to their own or their parents' support (Colorado);

1. North Carolina has recently adopted a compulsory education law.

to children over 14 lawfully employed to labour at home or elsewhere (Connecticut); to children over 13 who can read and write English and are regularly employed in useful service (Pennsylvania).

(3) In some cases the annual period of compulsory attendance is very short (*e.g.*, Arizona, 12 weeks, 6 consecutive; Idaho, 12 weeks, 8 consecutive; Nevada, 16 weeks, 8 consecutive), but it is becoming general to require attendance during the whole time the schools are open, and this is now the case in 24 States.

(4) In three out of the twelve States where there is no general compulsory attendance law there are special attendance laws applying to particular districts (Maryland, North Carolina and Tennessee); and in five others (Arkansas, Delaware, Louisiana, S. Carolina and Texas) a certain amount of indirect compulsion is exercised by means of educational restrictions on child labour. Similar restrictions will come into force in Georgia after January 1, 1908.

(5) In the case of illiterates, attendance up to 16 years of age at day or night school is frequently required even in those States where the *general* age limit is 14. The same extension of the age limit is sometimes made in the case of children not regularly employed.

(6) The strictness with which the law as to compulsory attendance is enforced varies very much from State to State. In Michigan (age limits 7—15) the compulsory attendance law was reported in 1905 to be enforced in only 3,360 districts out of 7,267. In Nebraska (age limits 7—15) there were, in 1904, 206,302 children of compulsory school age, and of these, 148,984 (72·21 per cent.) made the required attendances. In Iowa (age limits 7—14) reports from country superintendents in 1903 stated that 49 of the counties enforced compulsory school attendance in part; 8 “were trying to enforce it”; 31 counties report that “it is

enforced"; 2 that "it has had good effect"; 1 that "sentiment is growing in favour of the law"; 1 "no complaint"; 1 "not very well"; 4 "not enforced"; and 1 "in rural schools only." The Massachusetts (age limits 7-14) report for 1905 states that closer supervision of superintendents has secured a better enforcement of the compulsory laws; the Washington (age limits 8-15) report for 1904 says that the law seems to have worked well and to have accomplished the desired object wherever county superintendents have faithfully performed their duties in regard to it; from Indiana (age limits 7-14) it was reported in 1904 that "the compulsory education law has accomplished the work intended, and has increased the enrolment perceptibly"; the Vermont (age limits 8-15) School Report for 1904 gives the number of children of compulsory school age as 43,359, and the number not enrolled in school as 2,690 (6.2 per cent.).

Many States, in general terms, forbid, or permit only under restrictions, occupations dangerous to the life, limb, morals or health of children. In some States the employment of children in begging, theatrical and circus exhibitions, on dangerous machinery, in occupations requiring the handling of intoxicating liquors, nightwork, etc., is specifically forbidden. Where the employments forbidden are not specifically enumerated the enforcement of such provisions of law is difficult from lack of judicial interpretation as to what constitutes an employment dangerous to life, etc.

UNITED STATES.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour¹ (Brought Down to Close of 1906).

Compulsory Education.

Child Labour.

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Alabama	10 years, in factories in all cases; 12, unless orphans, or children of the widowed or disabled; 12, in mines.	
Arizona	8-14 12 weeks; 6 consecutive.	10 years, in all cases in manufacturing establishments; 12, unless employed in a manufacturing establishment unless he attends school 12 weeks each year and females not at all in mines.	
Arkansas	14 years, in any mercantile or manufacturing establishment, gain in school hours unless he can read and write English.	
California	8-14 Full term	No minor under 16 may work for workshop, hotel, or as messenger, can read and write English or etc. Children 12 to 14, upon permit may work if parents incapacitated or during vacation.	
Colorado	*8-16 do.	14 years, in any underground works, mine, smelter, mill, or factory. No female may be employed in a coal mine.	Unlawful to employ children under 14 during school hours unless they have complied with the school-attendance law; under 16, unable to read and write, unless attending day or night school.

1. From the Report of the Commissioner of Education (U.S.A.) for the year ending June 30, 1905. Chapter XI., "Compulsory Attendance and Child Labor Laws," pp. 183-192.
2. Children 14 to 16 whose labour is necessary to their own or parents' support are excused.

State.	Compulsory Education.		Child Labour.	
	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Connecticut	7-16	Full term	14 years, in any mercantile, or manufacturing establishment.	Children under 14 may not be employed while school is in session. Children 14 to 16 can not leave school to be employed unless their education is satisfactory to the local or State School Board.
Delaware			14 years, in any factory, shop, or manufacturing establishment, except in canning industry, etc., or to support widowed mother.	No child 14 to 16 may be so employed unless he has attended school 12 weeks the preceding year.
District of Columbia	8-14	do.	Children under 15 may not be employed more than 60 days without consent of legal guardian.	
Florida			10 years, in or about any manufacturing establishment; after Jan. 1, 1907, except for support of self or parents in specified cases.	After Jan. 1, 1908, no child under 14 may be employed as in preceding column (with the exception there noted) unless able to write and has attended school 12 weeks the preceding year;
Georgia			8-14 12 weeks; 8 consecutive	14 years, in mines.
Idaho			7-14 Full term, to be not less than 110 days of actual teaching.	No child 14 to 16 unable to read tuition, factory, office, theatre, elevator, etc., or as messenger or driver; 16, in or about any school, if there is one. No mine. No female may work in or about a mine.
Illinois			Not applicable to children over 14 lawfully employed to labour at home or elsewhere.	at any work for wages during the school term.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.

State.	Compulsory Education.		Child Labour.		Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	
Indiana	7-14	Full term	14 years, in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, mine, quarry, laundry, renovating works, bakery, or printing office. No female may work in a mine.	14 years, in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, mine, quarry, laundry, renovating works, bakery, or printing office. No female may work in a mine.	Children under 16, unable to read and write English, may not be employed in foregoing employment's except in vacation of public schools.
Iowa	7-14	16 consecutive weeks	14 years in any mine, factory, mill, shop, laundry, packing house, elevator, or store where more than 8 persons are employed.	14 years in any mine, factory, mill, shop, laundry, packing house, elevator, or store where more than 8 persons are employed.	
Kansas	8-15	Full term ¹	14 years, in any factory or packing house or in or about any mine; 16, in any dangerous, etc., employment.	14 years, in any factory or packing house or in or about any mine; 16, in any dangerous, etc., employment.	No minor under 16, may work in any coal mine unless he can read and write and has attended school 3 months in the year.
Kentucky	7-14	8 consecutive weeks; full term in cities of first, second, third and fourth classes.	14 years, in any workshop, factory, mill or mine, unless child has no other means of support.	14 years, in any workshop, factory, mill or mine, unless child has no other means of support.	No child under 14 to be employed in any mercantile, laundry, or printing establishment, or as messenger, except during vacation.
Louisiana			12 years (boys). 14 (girls), in any factory, mill, warehouse, workshop in cities of 10,000 or more.	14 (girls), in any factory, mill, warehouse, or workshop in cities of 10,000 or more.	14 may not be employed in foregoing employments, nor in clothing, dress-making, or millinery establishments, unless they have attended school 4 months in preceding year.
Maine	7-15	Full term	12 years, in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment.	12 years, in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment.	Children under 15 shall not be employed in any manufacturing or mechanical establishment, except during vacation, unless they have attended school 16 weeks during preceding year.

1. Inclusive.

2. Eight weeks for children over 14 who can read and write English and are at work to support themselves or others.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.
Compulsory Education.

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Maryland	8-12	Full term	14 years, in mills and factories (except canning establishments), read and write English may be unless self, widowed mother, or employed where there is an invalid father solely dependent upon such employment. Nine-teen counties exempt from law.	No minor, 12 to 16, unable to read and write English may be employed where there is an invalid father solely dependent upon such employment. Nine-teen counties exempt from law.
Massachusetts	7-14	do.	14 years, in factories, workshops, or mercantile establishments.	Children under 14 may not be employed at any work for wages during school hours; from 14 to 16 may not be so employed in any factory, workshop, or mercantile establishment if unable to read and write. ³
Michigan	17-15	do.	14 years, in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, workshop, laundry, store, office, hotel, messenger service, etc.	Children 14 to 16, unable to read and write English, may not be employed.
Minnesota	8-18	do.	14 years, in factories, workshops, or mines.	Children under 14 years may not be employed in mercantile establishments, telegraph, telephone, or public messengers companies, except during vacation; under school age (16 years), in any occupation unless they have attended school the prescribed period; under 16, unable to read and write English, in any indoor occupation (except in-vacation) unless attending day or evening school.

1. Inclusive.

2. The provisions tabulated for Maryland (except in last column) are those of the Act of 1902, whose operation is limited to Baltimore City and Allegany County.

3. To 16 unless regularly employed to labour at home or elsewhere.

4. To 16 if wandering about public places without lawful occupation, or if unable to read and write.

5. Must be able to so read and write as is required to enter the second grade in 1906, third in 1907, and fourth in 1908 and after.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Missouri.....	'8-14	Not less than half of term.....	14 years, in mines, manufacturing or mechanical establishments; played in any way in school hours unless he has complied with the attendance law. No boy under 16 may work in a mine unless he can read and write.	Child Labour.
Montana.....	'8-14	Full term; in no case less than 16 weeks.	16 years, in mines or underground works.	Children under 14 not to be employed during school sessions unless they have completed the studies required by law; from 14 to 16, if unable to read and write English.
Nebraska	7-15	Two-thirds of school term; in no case less than 12 weeks.	10 years, in manufacturing, mechanical, industrial, or mercantile establishments.	Foregoing employments unlawful during vacations under 14 (except they have attended school 20 weeks the preceding year.
Nevada	8-14	16 weeks; 8 consecutive	12 years, in any manufacturing establishment.	No child under 14 may be employed during school sessions, nor under 16 if unable to read and write English. No minor unable to read and write English may be employed unless attending day or evening school, if any is held.
New Hampshire	'8-14	Full term		
New Jersey	7-14	do.		Children under 15 must have attended school 12 weeks the preceding year as a condition of employment.
New Mexico	7-14	3 months		

1. To 16 if unemployed.

2. To 16 if unable to read and write English.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Child Labour.	Continued. Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
New York	8-16	Full Term (October 1 to June 1) 14 years, in factories; if 14 to 16 the child must have attended school 130 days the preceding year, and be able to read and write English, and cypher. Similar provisions apply, in and write English, and cypher, places of over 3,000 population, or (in first and second class to work in mercantile establishments, business offices, restaurants, hotels, express or messenger service, except for children over 12 in small places during vacation. For work in or about mines 16 years is the minimum. No female may work in a mine.	12 years, in any factory or manufacturing establishment (does not apply to oyster canning and packing); 12 years, in mines employing over 10 men (boys).	Children under 14 may not be employed in any manner during school hours unless they have attended school 12 weeks during the year.	No child under 14 may be employed in any other manner during school sessions; or between 14 and 16 if unable to read and write English; or in mines during school term if under 13.
North Carolina					
North Dakota	8-14	Full term	12 years, in mines, factories, and workshops.		
Ohio	8-14	Full term; in no case less than 24 weeks.	14 years, in mines, factories, workshops, mercantile or other establishments.		

1. To 16 if unable to read and write English.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.
(Child Labour.)

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Oregon	8-14	Full term	14 years, in any factory, store, workshop, in or about any to any child 14 to 16 unless mine, or in the telegraph, telephone, or public messenger tending year and can read English. No child under 14 may be employed in any work for compensation during school hours.	
Pennsylvania.....	8-16	Full term ; but the School Board of each district has power to reduce this to not less than 70 per cent. of the term.	14 years, in any employment, except domestic, coal mining, or farm labour; 16 years in coal mines; 14 years in or about the outside workings of coal mines. Girls may not work in or about coal mines.	No child 14 to 16 may be employed unless he can read and write English and has complied with the school laws.
Rhode Island	7-15	Full term	14 years, in any factory, manufacturing or business establishment.	Children under 13 may not be employed except during school vacations.
South Carolina			12 years, in any factory, mine, or textile establishment, except that certain self-dependent children may work in the latter.	Children may work in textile establishments in June, July, and August if they have attended school 4 months during the year and can read and write.
South Dakota	8-14	12 weeks, 8 consecutive	14 years, in mines	No child 8 to 14 to be employed during school hours unless he has attended school 12 weeks during the year.

1. To 16 if unemployed.

2. Not applicable to children over 13 who can read and write English and are lawfully employed.

3. Not applicable to children over 13 who are regularly employed in useful service.

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.
Compulsory Education.

State.	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Tennessee	(¹)		14 years, in workshops, factories, or mines.	
Texas			12 years, in mills, factories, manufacturing or other establishments using machinery; 16 years in mines, distilleries, or etc., certain self-dependent breweries.	Unlawful to employ children 12 years of age in mills, factories, manufacturing or other establishments using machinery; 16 years in mines, distilleries, or etc., certain self-dependent breweries.
Utah	8-16 20 weeks, 10 consecutive; 14 years, in mines.			
Vermont.....	in cities of the 1st and 2nd class 30 weeks, 10 consecutive.			
Virginia.....	8-15 Full term		12 years, for any railroad company or in any mill, quarry, or workshop, or carrying messages.	No child under 16 who has not completed the 9-year school course may be employed in any railroad factory, mine, or quarry work, or in delivering messages, except out of school hours.
Washington	8-15 Full term		12 years, "in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mining operation."	
West Virginia	8-14 20 weeks		14 years, in mines (boys); 12 (boys) in the outside workings of a colliery; 14, in any factory, mill, workshop, or store, except (12 to 14) in specified cases of need.	Children under 15 may not be employed in manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishments, or by any corporation, while the schools are in session, unless excused by the school superintendent. No child under 14 shall be so employed during school term if it hinders regular attendance.

1. In 1905 a Compulsory Attendance Act was passed applying only to Claiborne and Union Counties.
2. Children under 8 or over 15, when once enrolled, must attend the full term they are enrolled for.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Statutory Provisions relating to Compulsory Attendance and Child Labour—Continued.
 Child Labour.

State	Age.	Annual period.	Age under which specified employments are forbidden.	Educational restrictions on Child Labour.
Wisconsin	7-14	Full term; in cities, not less than 8, elsewhere not less than 5, calendar months.	12 years, in any occupation; 14, Children 12 to 14 may not be employed in any occupation, except during school vacations, in factories, work-shops, bowling alleys, bar-rooms, beer gardens, mines; 14 to 16, in any occupation without specified written permit; 18, as messengers (females).	

Wyoming 6-21 3 months. 14 years, in mines; females may not work in mines.

United States Laws
 (for Territories).
 12 years, in the underground workings of any mine.

1. To 16, if not regularly and usefully employed at home or elsewhere.
2. Penalty only for child 7 to 16, or one living idly and loitering about public places.

EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN OF BETWEEN 10 AND 16 YEARS
OF AGE IN THE UNITED STATES.

In the United States Census of 1900, the enumerators were instructed to report the occupations of all children of between 10 and 16 years of age who were "earning money regularly by labour, contributing to the family support, or appreciably assisting in mechanical or agricultural industry."

The total number of children employed as above was 1,750,000. Of these, 60 per cent. were engaged in agriculture. Four-fifths of the children employed in agriculture were boys. Most of them were employed on farms belonging to their own families. A large proportion of the boys and a great majority of the girls employed on farms were negroes.

The number of children engaged in other occupations was 688,000. Of these 186,000 (boys 110,000, girls 76,000) were between 10 and 14 years of age. Of the 110,000 boys, 59,000 were messenger and office boys, servants and waiters or labourers; 12,500 were employed in textile factories and 9,000 were employed in mines and quarries. Of the 76,000 girls mentioned above, 50,000 were servants, waitresses, laundresses, etc., 14,000 were employed in textile factories and 4,000 as dressmakers and tailoresses.

Four-fifths of the children of between 10 and 16 years of age who were employed in cotton mills, resided in two comparatively small areas. One of these areas (that composed of the New England States) reported three-tenths of the total number of children employed. Half the total number was reported from the second area, which consisted of North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia. The tendency to employ children in cotton mills is greater in the Southern States than in the Northern. The number

of operatives employed in cotton mills in the Northern and Western States is half as large again as the number in the Southern States, but in the North only one cotton mill operative out of every ten was under 16 years of age, while in the South, the proportion was about three times as large. Massachusetts reported the largest aggregate of mill operatives, but the smallest percentage of employed children under 16 years of age. The highest percentage was in North Carolina. Only a very small number of negro children are employed in the cotton mills. Of the children of between 10 and 14 years of age employed in the cotton mills, 86 per cent. were native white with both parents native.

(See Board of Trade Labour Gazette, 1907, and Bulletin No. 69 of the United States. 1900 Census Bureau.)

CHAPTER XXV.

Should Attendance at Continuation Schools be made Compulsory in England?

IN this chapter I propose to discuss the question whether it is desirable that attendance at continuation schools should be made compulsory in England and, if so, (1) within what limits of age, (2) whether for girls as well as for boys, (3) whether in the case of those engaged in agricultural occupations and in domestic service, as well as in the case of boys and girls engaged in factories, in the transport trades, in shops, in offices and in the various forms of unskilled employment, and (4) with what further limitation of the hours and times of employment of children and young persons, and with what degree of statutory obligation upon the employers of juvenile labour and upon the parents of the young people concerned.

In preface to the discussion, it is desirable to define the aim of continuation schools and the place which they occupy in the system of national education.

The purpose of the continuation school is to provide at convenient hours further instruction for those who have already left the day school and have entered upon the practical work of life whether as apprentices or as independent wage-earners or in the duties of the home. It endeavours to meet the needs of both sexes. It presupposes a sufficient basis of elementary education but, where that is defective, attempts to supply it. The lower age limit of its pupils varies according to the age at which boys and girls are released from compulsory attendance at the elementary day school. In the more advanced stages of its work the

continuation school includes many different forms of adult education. The higher age-limit of its province is therefore undefined. The task of the continuation school thus falls into two main, though not clearly demarcated, divisions—the elementary and the advanced. Its work is in part general education, but increasingly (though by no means exclusively) technical. Its function is two-fold: to prepare its pupils for the efficient discharge of the duties of citizenship and to increase their power and skill in bread-winning occupations. For those who leave the elementary school at thirteen or fourteen years of age and cannot proceed to a secondary day school, the continuation school attempts to give during adolescence and early manhood or womanhood such opportunities of further training as the exigencies of employment may permit.

The discussion which follows is arranged under three heads, viz.:—

(1) Is there need, on social and economic grounds, to encourage increased attendance at continuation schools in England?

(2) Would it be expedient in any circumstances to apply to continuation schools the principle of compulsory attendance?

(3) If the answer to both of these questions is in the affirmative, in what manner is it desirable that the principle of compulsory attendance should be applied?

I shall endeavour in dealing with these questions to lay the arguments on both sides before the reader as fairly as I can, seeking rather to furnish him with materials for a judgment than to press him towards a foregone conclusion. At the same time, he would not wish me to conceal (whether he assents to them or no) the conclusions to which our inquiry has led me.

1. Is there need, on social and economic grounds, to encourage "increased attendance at continuation schools in England ?

The attendance at evening classes and, at other forms of "further education" in England and Wales is large. In the session 1904-5, the evening classes under inspection by Government, (and there were many others which, because not so inspected, did not come into the statistics) were attended by nearly three-quarters of a million (718,562) students,¹ six out of ten of whom were males. Thus, as many as 22 per 1,000 of the population of England and Wales attended evening classes under Government inspection in the session 1904-5.² No statistics exist which enable us accurately to compare the number of students in evening classes in different countries but,

1. This figure is, if anything, below the mark but for a necessary qualification of it, see pp. 111-112.

2. It is interesting to compare with this figure, 22 per 1,000, the corresponding number per 1,000 of population of pupils who at about the same time were attending secondary day schools in different parts of England. The figures given below, were obtained in the course of inquiries made during 1904-5.

PUPILS IN ALL SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

	Boys per 1000 of population	Girls per 1000 of population	Boys and Girls together per 1000 of population	Percentage of Girls in the number of pupils receiving Secondary Education
Essex (Administrative County)	6.11	5.76	11.87	48.5
Hampshire (Admini- strative County) ...	6.85	3.88	10.73	36.1
Derbyshire (Admini- strative County) ...	3.53	1.54	5.07	30.3
Exeter	11.14	13.73	24.8	55.19
Birkenhead	6.59	8.72	15.3	56.94
Newcastle-upon-Tyne..	6.79	5.88	12.67	46.4
Liverpool	4.14	3.70	7.84	47.1
Huddersfield	3.99	3.46	7.45	46.4

so far as is known, there is a larger attendance at such classes in England and Wales than in any foreign country in which attendance is voluntary. Second to England in this regard, stands France. But the weak spot in the system of continuation schools both in France and England lies in their failure to carry forward without break the intellectual and moral discipline begun in the elementary day school, to attendance at which alone, in both countries, legal compulsion now applies.

In England and Wales the limits of compulsory attendance at school vary (a minimum being laid down by statute) according to the bye-laws of different districts. The main provisions of the present law may be thus summarised.

(a) Children may be employed in agriculture at the age of eleven (if the local bye-laws contain a special provision to this effect) provided that they attend school 250 times a year up to the age of thirteen.

(b) With this exception, no child under the age of twelve can obtain either partial or total exemption from the duty of attending school.

(c) A child between twelve and thirteen (or, if the bye-laws so provide, between twelve and fourteen) can only obtain total or partial exemption upon the conditions which the bye-laws of the district prescribe.

(d) In those districts in which the bye-laws are still restricted to children under thirteen years of age, a child between thirteen and fourteen can obtain total exemption either on passing the fourth standard or on having made (since reaching the age of five years) 350 attendances in not more than two schools during each year for five years, whether consecutive or not.

(c) A child between twelve and fourteen may claim partial exemption (if such exemption is allowed by the bye-laws of the district in which the child resides) on having made 300 previous attendances in not more than two schools during each year for five preceding years whether consecutive or not.

The general effect of this complex system is illustrated by the following table showing the proportion of the population of England and Wales of elementary school age on April 1, 1901, which was on the register of public elementary schools in the year ending January 31, 1901, these figures being taken as the nearest comparable to one another.

AGES.	CENSUS, ¹ April 1, 1901. Estimated Population in England and Wales at each year of age.			BOARD OF EDUCATION STATISTICS, ² 1900-1. (Year ending Jan. 31, 1901) No. of children on School registers on last day of school-year. Boys and Girls not given separately	
	BOYS.	GIRLS.	TOTAL.	Boys and Girls	Percentage of total population of that age
3 and under 4	357,881	359,959	717,840	201,270	or 28·03%
4 „ „ 5	361,731	362,455	724,186	414,770	or 57·13%
5 „ „ 6	344,861	348,027	692,888	586,923	or 84·7%
6 „ „ 7	346,327	347,016	693,343	627,385	or 90·48%
7 „ „ 8	347,433	347,958	695,391	631,501	or 90·81%
8 „ „ 9	346,726	348,345	695,071	632,933	or 91·06%
9 „ „ 10	342,512	343,993	686,505	626,345	or 91·23%
10 „ „ 11	325,967	327,450	653,417	608,446	or 93·11%
11 „ „ 12	334,449	335,903	670,352	593,317	or 88·5%
12 „ „ 13	329,213	330,130	659,343	532,692	or 80·79%
13 „ „ 14	336,080	335,632	671,712	250,126	or 37·23%
14 „ „ 15	332,578	332,931	665,509	46,989	or 7·06%
15 „ „ 16	328,482	337,400	665,882	(15 or over)	
16 „ „ 17	336,180	344,703	680,883	6·446	or ·96% (of pop. between (15-16)
Totals ...	4,770,420	4,801,902	9,572,322	5,758,143	

1. Census of England and Wales, 1901. General Report (Cd. 2174). Appendix A, Table 20, page 212.

2. Statistics of Elementary Day Schools, etc. (Cd. 1139), 1900-1. Table 9, page 31.

So far as we know, the attendance at the day school is being prolonged to a more advanced age than was formerly the case. The last figures are found in an appendix to the Board of Education Report for 1904-5. But, they have been left out of the Board's Report for the last year. It is true that the arrangement of the figures was ambiguous, but they were better than nothing, and all we can now do is to fall back upon them, though they are getting a little out of date. They seem to show that the number of pupils who remain at the elementary schools till they are between $13\frac{1}{2}$ and $14\frac{1}{2}$ had more than doubled in the ten years 1894-1903 inclusive. During the decade the totals show steady annual increments from 135,524 to 298,775. This is satisfactory, and all the more so because an increasing number of children pass on to secondary schools at 12 years of age or earlier.¹ The number of children leaving the public elementary schools between $14\frac{1}{2}$ and $15\frac{1}{2}$ years of age rose from 33,748 in 1894 to

1. All available evidence points to this conclusion, but the number of pupils attending secondary schools in England is not precisely known. The only comprehensive return in existence is that issued by the Education Department in 1898 [ed. 8634. London: Wymans]. This showed that on June 1, 1897, there were 291,544 pupils (158,502 boys; 133,042 girls) in the schools comprised in the return. But many schools were included in it which (in point of the age of their pupils) were elementary rather than secondary in character. During the years 1903-7 statistics have been published showing the total attendance of boys and girls at secondary schools of all types in a number of selected areas. For a summary of some of these, see Sadler *Secondary and Higher Education in Essex* (County Education office, Chelmsford, 1906), page 7, and the Kent Education Committee's *Special Report on Higher Education in Kent* (Kent Education Committee, Caxton House, Westminster, 1906), page 9. The statistics issued annually by the Board of Education are confined to those secondary schools which are in receipt of grants from the Board of Education. Thus they omit the great Public Schools and the private preparatory and many other schools. The number of pupils in the state-aided secondary schools in England increased from 85,973 in 1903-4 to 94,698 in 1904-5. (Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales, 1904-6, ed. 3255. London: Wymans.)

47,681 in 1903.¹ The last figure is 8·09 per cent. of the total number of children who left public elementary schools in that year at the age of 10½ years and over.

The general result of these calculations may be stated as follows: In England and Wales on April 1, 1901, there were estimate to be 1,996,564 children between 12 and 15 years of age. In the school year ending January 31, 1901, there were on the public elementary school registers on the last day of the school year 829,807 children between the same ages. This leaves a difference of 1,166,757 to be accounted for. The number of children between 12 and 15 who were in the secondary schools on June 1, 1897, as shown by the "Return of Pupils in Public and Private Secondary and Other Schools"² (the only census of the kind to which we can refer) was 106,764. That return indeed was not exhaustive and during the following years a great (but not fully recorded) increase took place in the number of pupils in secondary schools. It would, however, be sanguine to estimate that the number was more than doubled. This leaves nearly a million children between 12 and 15 who were not receiving education in day schools. But in the session 1902-3 the number of pupils between 12 and 15 years of age who

1. By Section 22 (2) of the Education Act 1902, it is provided that a local education authority may furnish instruction in a public elementary school to scholars who, at the close of the school year, will not be more than 16 years of age. But with the consent of the Board of Education the local authority may extend those limits in the case of any school if no suitable higher education is available within a reasonable distance of the school.

By Section 11 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act 1907 a local education authority has power to aid by scholarships and bursaries the instruction in public elementary schools of scholars from the age of twelve up to the limit of age fixed by the section quoted above from the Education Act 1902.

These changes in the law have not yet had time to produce considerable results, but their probable effect will be an increase in the number of elder scholars in many public elementary schools.

2. C. 8634, 1898, p. 11.

attended evening classes under Government inspection was only 147,191. Let us add about 50,000 (a generous allowance) in order to cover those who were in classes not included in the Government statistics. The conclusion is that not more than one in five of the children in England and Wales regularly attend the continuation schools during the years immediately following the elementary day school courses. 'But a large proportion of these children live in country cottages with no evening school within convenient reach, or are otherwise so circumstanced that they could not fairly be expected to attend an evening school during the winter months. It will be fair, therefore, to state that not more than one out of every three of the children in England and Wales, who might be expected to do so, regularly attend a continuation school during the years immediately following their course at the elementary day school. This leakage is serious. And there is some reason to fear that it is more serious still.

But though there is practically no doubt about what is happening, official statistics throw curiously little light upon the exact state of the case. We need two tables—one showing year by year the number of children who left the public elementary schools, precisely classified according to age; the other showing year by year the number of pupils' (also classified according to each year of their age) who were in attendance at continuation schools. In each case boys and girls should be shown separately. The first of these tables would show us whether the elementary school leaving age is rising, and, if so, in what degree; how many boys and girls leave between 12 and 13, how many between 13 and 14, how many between 14 and 15, and how many over 15. The second of the tables would show how far the continuation schools dovetail into the

close of the elementary day school course and to what extent the continuation schools catch the boys and girls when their day-school course is over. But the statistics of the Board of Education, admirable in nearly all respects, fail to furnish us with this information, necessary though it is to a clear knowledge of the social and economic bearings of our present educational law. There are no tables which give the precise number of the ages of the pupils who have left the elementary schools in each successive year; and the statistics giving the number of pupils in attendance at continuation schools, instead of showing the precise ages of the pupils, group them under terms of years, viz., 12—15, 15—21, and over 21. It is desirable that these groups should be broken up and classified according to sex and to yearly intervals. As things are, we cannot measure with any precision the growth or decline of the number of those in attendance at continuation schools during the years which follow the close of the day-school course. The Board of Education would render a great service by giving the country more detailed statistical information about this frontier region, in which elementary school life abuts upon the period of early wage-earning and of adolescence.

In some towns successful efforts have been made to strengthen the link between the elementary day schools and the evening continuation schools. At Widnes about four out of five boys who leave the day schools begin at once to attend the evening schools. At Rochdale, during the years 1905-7, 55 per cent. of the boys under 17 who had left the day school, and 25 per cent. of the corresponding category of girls, were in attendance at evening classes. At Halifax about 58 per cent. of all the children (boys and girls) who left the elementary day schools in 1906 joined the evening continuation schools within a

year. At Littleborough, in the session 1906-7, half the children (boys and girls) went on straight to the evening classes on completing the elementary day school course. These results show what can be done, even under our system as it stands, by attentive and skilful administration and with the goodwill of the parents and of influential employers of labour, to mortise the work of the continuation classes to that of the public elementary day schools. Many local authorities and the representatives of the Board of Education have worked hard to improve the intellectual efficiency and practical usefulness of the evening classes. Public interest in the matter, especially in Lancashire, in Cheshire and in the West Riding, has recently become much keener than it used to be, and with encouraging results. An increasing number of employers, especially in the engineering trades, encourage their younger workpeople to attend evening classes, and a number of firms in other branches of industry have set an excellent example by the care which they have shown for the educational welfare of the lads and girls employed by them.¹ There is every reason to believe that that among thoughtful working men and women the conviction grows that a more prolonged education, practical in its methods but humanising in its ideals, is one of the greatest boons which their children can receive. And the more intelligent among the young people themselves are convinced that they have much to gain from a good education. But in the great majority of English towns the continuation schools are still in a disappointing state. We are at present only at the beginning of what may grow into a great movement of national opinion in favour of improved education for the masses of the people. The

1. See Chapter VIII., and especially pp. 306-8. The reader will understand that the list given in Chapter VIII. is very far from being exhaustive. The employers who encourage their workpeople to attend evening classes may now be numbered by hundreds.

great majority of parents and employers are still indifferent. The old habit of mind, which led English people to pay little heed to the power of education, is hard to shake off. In some cases education is regarded with hostility rather than with contempt. Many men of the foremen class make difficulties in the way of lads in the works getting opportunities for technical instruction. And in the course of our inquiry we heard of cases in which boys had actually been threatened with dismissal if they went to the evening school.

There is mischief in the present state of things, moral mischief as well as physical and intellectual. City life is making the danger worse. Unskilled employment at thirteen with good money tempts a boy like a baited trap. He is drawn into a way of life which leaves him at sixteen or seventeen without a trade to his fingers and with the habit of steady learning gone out of his head. If we ask the elementary school master about it, he says that much of what he and his colleagues have succeeded in doing for such a boy disappears during the two or three years immediately following the day school course. If, on the other hand, we ask the teachers of the technical evening classes, we find them hampered by the fact that many of those who wish to enter have forgotten much of the knowledge which they require as a foundation for technical work. Thus, inquiries which begin at opposite ends of the line lead to one and the same conclusion — that the years between thirteen and sixteen or seventeen are the point of educational leakage; that we have, as it were, laid down a costly system of water supply, but have left badly leaking pipes just behind the tap; and that some change is needed in our educational regulations in order to clench the work done in the elementary day schools and to provide a sounder foundation for efficiency in skilled trades and in the duties of home life.

This is how the question presents itself to a group of writers who well know the conditions of city life and the nature of the London boy.

"The type that will be needed in the future is the type of skilled and versatile *minds*; the problem of to-day is how we are to produce this type. Will anyone who knows the town boy claim that we are now producing it? Versatile he certainly is, but his is a superficial and mercurial versatility, produced with fatal certainty by the unstable life of the street. He is master of a thousand tricks . . . but intelligent he certainly is not, in the way he must be if he—and his nation—are to prosper. It would be foolish to blame the elementary schools for this; considering his difficulties—especially the migratory habits of the families, and the necessarily large classes—the elementary school teacher produces very wonderful results; but the moral results are perhaps more wonderful than the mental. And, however good the teaching may be, however successfully the brighter children may be taught a great deal more than is learned by the children of the wealthier classes by the time they are fourteen, there can be no question that the average boy, still more the stupid boy, is turned out to live his life and earn his wage without the equipment he now needs. His education stops at the most critical point; he has not yet learned to apply his little knowledge to any practical use; has not yet brought it into rotation to any purpose—even an easy sum in arithmetic, stated in an unaccustomed way, will seem to him insoluble,—and the habits of observation, of which the foundations have been well enough laid in the school, soon fall to pieces for lack of continued stimulus and training. His employment as errand boy or van boy, as messenger, bottlewasher, or what not, sharpens his wits in a few directions, but leaves his mind unworked in many and untrained in all. At the age of eighteen, he is usually rather more ignorant than he was at thirteen—a matter of small importance; but also much less capable of learning—a matter of the very greatest importance. Five years of idleness has had its effect; half his mind, the working half, has lost, not gained, in strength. How is this loss to be prevented? . . . There is only one conclusion either the day-school education must be prolonged beyond the age of fourteen, or the evening school must be made compulsory. Of the two alternatives the former is for the present out of the question; public opinion is not likely to agree to raise the age limit still further for some years to come. There remains, then, the second alternative, that evening schools should be made compulsory for all boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen who are not being efficiently taught during the day; and this step we venture to advocate as strongly as possible, in the interests both of the boys and girls of the present and of the citizens and workers of the future."

In 1904 the Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration came to the same conclusion, and stated it in language which is less racy but more official.

"The period of adolescence is responsible for much waste of human material and for the entrance upon

1. "Studies of Boy Life in our Cities." Edited by E. J. Urwick; pp. 283-6. London: J. M. Dent & Co., 1904.

maturity of permanently damaged and ineffective persons of both sexes. The plasticity of the physical organization, the power it possesses of yielding rapidly towards degenerative or recuperative influences, appears to terminate at eighteen, and the records of the years preceding that age are in the great majority of cases decisive for self-improvement or the reverse. Unfortunately, it is a period of which too little account is taken. With the classes under consideration, education in the ordinary sense of the word is over just when in its full significance it becomes most necessary. Parental discretion is almost entirely absent, and in lieu of it very little supervision is exercised in any other quarter over physical or moral development."¹

Part, at any rate, of our urgent difficulty in regard to unemployment (though no one, except perhaps the members and investigators of the Poor Law Commission can at present say with confidence whether the part is small or large) is traceable to the fact that in large towns great numbers of boys drift, after leaving the elementary day schools, into occupations in which it is no one's business to see that they get any technical or general education which will help them to enter a skilled trade at sixteen or seventeen. That some of the boys themselves realise this may be shown by a piece of first hand evidence. Mr. D. B. Kittermaster, who is in charge of the Shrewsbury Lads' Club in Liverpool, set himself to ask the club-members about their work for the purpose of a paper which he was under promise to read at the Congress of the National League of Workers with Boys,² held in Manchester on November 26, 1906. A lad in the club heard him asking questions and wanted to know why

1. Report of the Committee, vol. i, paragraph 366. London: Wyman & Sons, 1904. Cd. 2175.

2. Hon Sec., Mr. J. H. Whitehouse. Toynbee Hall, Commercial St., London E.

he was doing it. Mr. Kittermaster explained. The boy at once demanded writing materials. "I'll write you a paper on unemployment," he said. He produced the following, which is all the more interesting because it comes from a lad whose father is usually one of the unemployed and who himself in the course of fifteen months made trial at four different places of work.

"There would not have been half so many unemployed men walking about the streets of our large towns as there are now, if those men, when they were boys, were apprentices to some suitable trade. There are at present in Liverpool many boys who work at coalyards for seventy-six hours weekly, and also errand-boys who work nearly as many hours as the above-mentioned. . . . By-and-by, as they grow older, they just begin to realise their folly of not trying to get a situation, in which they might have learned a trade that would have been some use to them in after life, instead of having to go out and swell the ranks of the unemployed. Many of the boys in Liverpool, as soon as they leave school, first look out for a job as a printer's errand-boy. After a while they get tired of that particular job, and they either get dismissed or they leave. They go on like this for a long time, until (say) they are about eighteen years of age, and at that age they are too big to work as errand-boys, and they get jobs as dock-labourers, or some join the Army or Navy."

In the discussion of the question of continuation schools the special needs of girls must be remembered as well as those of boys. Male administrators are a little apt to overlook them. Some of the points which must be kept in mind in considering the case of girls, have been well put by Miss Catherine Webb, ex-secretary of the Women's Industrial Council.

"The trend of our modern system of education has been to unfit the working girl to take her natural place as the helpmeet of the working-man, without fitting her for an independent economic and civic responsibility. . . . To-day the girl has become as much a wage-asset to her parents as the boy.

"The education given has, admittedly, not been of a character to fit girls for skilled employments, and early wage-earning has prevented them from learning at home the domestic arts which could make them efficient housewives. Their training as potential citizens has been almost wholly neglected, both by parents and educationalists. After the first careless years of maidenhood have passed no one deploras more deeply than the working woman herself the errors of training

1. *Saint George*, January 1907, article "Unemployed and Boy Labour," by D. B. Kittermaster.

through which she is handicapped at every point. The valiant struggles of the young untrained housewife to 'manage her household' and her husband's limited income to the 'best advantage' are amongst the unrecorded deeds of heroism which go to make our nation truly great. They present the obverse of the dark picture of ignorance and pitiful inefficiency which troubles us so deeply.

"Another remarkable change in the outlook of working women is also worthy of more consideration than is given to it by the majority of people. Through the associations of the work-room, of girls' clubs, temperance and political organisations, trade unions, co-operative and other mutual associations, a vigorous and by no means small minority of working women have sought and found a system of self-education in citizenship of a quality little short of marvellous considering their initial disabilities. Economic responsibility as a wage-earner has brought to working women a corresponding realisation of her civic responsibility.

"The danger of reaction against which I wish to utter a word of warning, lies in the neglect of this new economic value of girls, and this new civic spirit in working women. In the well-meant desire to promote the physical well-being of the nation, physicians and educationalists alike are inclined to insist that, willy-nilly, working-class girls must specialise as housewives and mothers, whilst parents still require that they shall become industrial wage-earners at the earliest possible age. The consequence is an unrecognised clash of interests between which the child is, in my opinion, likely to suffer, unless the normal elementary school life can be made to overlap into the wage-earning period, until the girl herself arrives at some intelligent appreciation of the true meaning and intent of education and its bearing upon her future life. This development rarely happens before the age of sixteen, if as early.

"At present the control of the educational authority over the elementary school-girl ceases at the age of thirteen or fourteen, and for the vast majority of children all definite mental training is then at an end. What happens then is usually an interval of from six to twelve months spent at home waiting for the fourteenth or fifteenth birthday, when the factory, the shop or the 'place' is open to receive the worker. Sometimes the girl acquires a certain store of household handicraft of a sort at her mother's side; but more often she spends the time in some form of unremunerated drudgery, losing the larger portion of the mental training gained at school, and acquiring instead an aimless vacuity of mind, restless improvident habits, and a distaste for any form of mental exertion. She is fit only for one of the unskilled subordinate manufacturing processes waiting to use her labour as that of a cheap machine. A few years of blighting factory life, and the girl becomes the wife of some labouring man, and the mother of children who perish in infancy, the while we rail at her complete ignorance of the first laws of motherhood.

"My contention is that compulsory school life should not and need not cease at the age of thirteen. It should be prolonged in the compulsory continuation school up to the age of sixteen. All thought of sex specialisation should be banished from the curriculum for children under twelve, and only introduced in the broadest social sense after that age. At fourteen, when the normal elementary school period ends, the work of preparation for special duties may begin with advantage in the day or evening continuation school; broadened and steadied on an assured basis of character building through efficient training in civic responsibility. A few years of this method and our

industrial life would be free from the menace of cheap unintelligent girl labour. One may even hope that a new appreciation of domestic service as an industry might follow the training in the compulsory continuation school, if, at the same time, self-respecting ideas concerning the dignity of home life were inculcated. One of the most curious social-industrial phenomena of our day is this revolt of the working girl against the subordination of herself in domestic service, whilst she rushes in her thousands into industries which subordinate her to a machine.

"In making this plea for compulsory continuation schools I make no claim to speak authoritatively concerning the past mistakes in our elementary school methods. They are recognised by all educationalists, they are felt by all workers. My only claim to a hearing is that of a worker and a student of the industrial, economic and social conditions surrounding the lives of women workers. I venture, however, to assert that the comparatively less liberal standard of education deemed fitting and sufficient for girls of all classes as compared with that given to boys, is largely responsible for the admittedly lower standard of efficiency required of girls as workers and the contemptuously lower estimate in which they are held as citizens.

"If the State waits intelligent mothers to safeguard the health of its future citizens the State must be prepared to meet the cost in no niggardly spirit. The present disastrous educational gap between childhood and early womanhood must somehow be bridged, and the parents must be induced to forego some portion of the gains of early wage-earning, and to co-operate with the physician and the educationalist in preparing their girls for a worthy place in the social life of the nation and in the democracy of labour."

At this point it is well to face a difficult question, namely: Is the technical instruction given in evening classes at technical institutes likely to be of any real advantage to the great mass of labourers? Is it from a sound instinct of its probable lack of practical value to them that so many are indifferent to the opportunity of getting it? Many experienced men are of opinion that under present conditions of employment a very large proportion of labourers and other workers (men and women) have no opportunity of applying scientific principles to their work. They admit that from the point of view of ultimate national welfare we may be sacrificing human interests to the rapid production of what Ruskin calls "possessive wealth," and neglecting to nourish that truer form of wealth which is life, "life including all its

1. *University Review*, June 1906: "The need for compulsory continuation schools. A plea on behalf of girls."

powers of love, of joy and of admiration."¹ But they hold that, as things are, technical education is for the great multitude inevitably useless because the conditions of work make it impossible for them to make scientific application of it. "Give technical education" (they argue) "to the future officers and non-commissioned officers of industry. But for the rank and file it is discipline that is needed, not science."

It must be admitted that under present conditions of industrial organization the knowledge gained from courses of technical instruction is not, in many cases, capable of being *directly* applied to their work in the factory by men or women engaged in some grades of labour. Yet the conditions which cause this to be so are in some measure psychological and alterable, and by no means always economic or necessarily permanent. It is often because employers and foremen (especially foremen) and the leading workers in the workshop are not interested in, or are sceptical of, the practical application of science to industry and because they are indisposed to appreciate the indirect and collateral value of such application, that more opportunities are not found of making profitable use of the results of technical education and also of profiting by the adaptive and waste-saving habit of mind which is the best result of a good scientific training. In a town in Germany there is a technical class for stokers, and the men who have gone through the course get good employment readily, because they are found to make more economical use of the coal than those who have not been so trained. It is in reducing the margin of waste—waste of time and of effort as well as waste of material—that the value of scientific training for the mass of workers will

1. *Unto this Last*, edition of 1877, p. 156.

be found. And, though it may possibly be true that, in some trades or in parts of some trades, technical classes are not of much direct value to the ordinary worker so far as skill in his trade is concerned, it is in all cases true that a worker will profit (if the conditions of employment are just) by the development of intellectual power and general intelligence which will result from a well-planned course of training. Nor must the question be regarded only from the point of view of the workshop or factory or farm. We have to think of training the man and the citizen, not only of training those dexterities which will secure rapid and profitable production. "The great product of England," as Creighton said, "is not so much its institutions, its empire, its commerce or its literature as it is the individual Englishman who is moulded by all these influences *and is the ultimate test of their value.*"¹

In certain trades, the practical instruction which can be given under the somewhat artificial conditions of the technical school is admitted to be of direct practical value in wage-earning to workers of all grades.² This is the case, for example, in the cabinet making trades, in some branches of metal working, and in dressmaking and millinery. The observation is true of all industries in which artistic skill finds scope, or might find scope, in the actual work of those persons who are engaged in making things. But under conditions of factory production for a keenly competitive market, such opportunities are comparatively rare, so far as the rank and file of the workers are concerned. And this would prove a difficulty in the way of the planning useful courses of

1. Romanes Lectures, 1896, "English National Character."

2. In another department of technical education, this holds good of shorthand and typewriting.

technical instruction, not as at present for a self-selecting minority but for nearly all the male population of between fourteen and seventeen years of age. It does not follow, however, that methods even of factory production need be even for the rank and file as devoid of artistic opportunity, as is now usually the case. The nature of demand affects the conditions of supply. The two things inter-act. Improve the quality of the demand and you influence the conditions of production under which the demand is met. It will be agreed that the more callings a nation offers in which artistic power and individual gift can show and exert themselves in constructive work, the higher is likely to be the plane to which, if they have character and refining ideals and economic opportunity, the masses of a people may rise. "Men who have no pleasure in the work by which they make their bread, will look to wealth as the only means of pleasure." As Ruskin said, it is not through the degradation of the operative into a machine that nations win the kind of wealth that is most worth the winning.

In many of its new developments, however, modern machine-industry does not by any means necessarily degrade the operative into a machine.* On the contrary, one of its chief characteristics is to sieve out the workers into grades according to the degree in which they possess the required kinds of ability and alertness. An automatic machine does not want mere automata to look after it. It sifts the workers according to their capacity of skilfully watchful service. There is a greater demand than ever for men possessing good judgment, trustworthiness of character and the power of dealing intelligently and thoughtfully with new conditions. In fact one of our most pressing problems is how to deal with the human waste which has come about through the discarding of

the services of workers unable to adjust themselves to the new requirements. The characteristic quality which has most "selection-value" under the most advanced conditions of modern industry is an adaptive mind anchored to a rock of moral principle. This is the characteristic quality which a well-planned course of education, combining discipline and stimulus, can develop in those whose inbred capacities respond to such a training. It is for this reason that by a sure instinct the thoughtful members of the working classes are beginning to demand for their children a more effective and prolonged course of school training than they themselves received. They know that under modern conditions scientific training in the technical class, if it has been preceded by an intellectually thorough and stimulating course of general education, fits young people of both sexes, provided they have intelligence and character, for promotion to more responsible positions, because it makes them quicker in perception, more self-adaptive, and more balanced in practical judgment. Many of the skilled workers believe that the period of compulsory attendance at the day school should be extended first to 15 and ultimately to 16 years of age, the course of training during the last three years to consist largely, though not exclusively, of hand-work of different kinds. If such a plan were economically possible (a point in regard to which opinion is divided) it would be desirable on educational grounds. But any such extension of the period of compulsory attendance at the day schools would press heavily upon the poorer families, especially on those engaged in unskilled labour, unless it were accompanied by very large expenditure on maintenance allowances, an expenditure which would form a charge on public funds so heavy as perhaps to be prohibitive. The public advantage, however, of securing

for the rising generation a prolonged and suitable course of training in day schools would be very great, much greater indeed than that which would result from requiring attendance at evening schools after working hours are over. The feasibility of the plan, therefore, calls for careful inquiry and detailed discussion. It cannot be said that public opinion is at present ripe for any such extensive change, but as the economic and social value of improved national education is more clearly realised many difficulties which now look serious may prove to be not insuperable. Possibly some carefully devised plan of half-time attendance at day continuation schools between the ages of fourteen and sixteen may be found practicable.

There are, at present, many trades or parts of trades in which boy or girl labour is employed in ways involving premature strain, arrested education and long hours of deteriorating routine. In some of these cases it is the workmen, and not the employer, who engage and employ these boy and girl workers. But the evil consequences are the same. Custom and habit of mind may prevent us from realising the social injury which is being done by such employment, in many cases (it should never be forgotten) without those who are directly responsible being conscious of the mischief caused by their action. Yet this use of adolescent labour, unless accompanied by much educational care and regulation, interrupts at a critical point the course of physical, intellectual and moral development which is required to produce the efficient adult citizen. In other words, it wastefully interferes with a course of development which it is the main task and purpose of civilised government to shelter and promote. Such forms or conditions of employment may be immediately profitable to some individuals or groups of individuals, but are parasitic upon the national life as they

inflict grave and irreparable loss upon the young people concerned and upon the community to which they belong. They injure the young people by depriving them, at the most critical period in their life, of the further training necessary to qualify them for skilled employment. They injure the community in two ways: first, by depriving it of the full increase in economic efficiency which might result from the public outlay upon education, if the course of training were not brought to a premature close; and, secondly, by increasing the number of persons who become once more a charge upon the community at a time of life when they might have continued capable of self-supporting industry.¹

In England public opinion on educational matters has of late been moving in a new and more hopeful direction. There has been a significant change in our attitude of mind.

First, the importance of the physical condition of the children is becoming more prominent in our thought about the scope and purpose of school work. Book-learning is seen to be only part, and not always the most important part, of a good school training. Science is making us realise that hitherto we have paid far too little regard to the physical side of education and to the connection between the mind and the body.

Secondly, the stint of education which, till lately, was thought sufficient for the masses of the people is beginning to look meagre and inadequate. We do not forget the great work which, through the devotion of teachers and managers and members of education authorities, the public elementary schools have accomplished for England during the last twenty years. But we are becoming con-

1. Cf. Sidney and Beatrice Webb, *Industrial Democracy*, pp. 749-753, and Introduction to the 1902 edition, pp. liv-lvi.

vinced that the time has come for a further advance. All the children in the nation (and not least those who are growing up under adverse conditions of home life) should be given the good foundation of a liberal training—a training which will invigorate and discipline the bodily powers, touch and cultivate the imagination and the sympathies, and help in forming a purposeful, steadfast and disinterested character. But this cannot be done unless every child remains at school till fourteen at least (a much higher limit of exemption being desirable, if economically possible), and unless the elementary schools are well staffed and the large classes reduced in size.

Thirdly, the national aspect of the problem of education stands out more clearly year by year. We see that education is but one aspect of a many sided social problem. Our notion of what is a fitting system of education depends upon our social ideal. In our national life there has to be both freedom and discipline. Therefore, a sound system of national education must endeavour to produce vigorous personalities prepared to submit themselves to the claims of national service—a service which should embrace a variety of forms of social duty, practically and morally ameliorative, as well as, in the narrower sense of the word defensive. Education should favour the development of individuality and of strong personal conviction upon the deeper matters of life and duty, but it is not less essential to stir up through national education a sense of national duty and of obligation towards the State.

Thus, greater stress than heretofore is likely to be laid upon these three things—the physical side of education; the national and collective (as distinguished from the purely individual) advantage which is derived from the healthy and intelligent upbringing of the children and

youth of the people; and the urgency of the need for better and more systematic training for the duties of citizenship and for home-making and family claims—a training which must consist of a sufficiently long course of liberal education, blended towards its end with the practical duties of life, whether in the workshop or the home.

Beyond doubt there has been a quickening of the sense of educational responsibility in England. We realise, more clearly than heretofore, how critical, alike in their effect upon physical health and upon character, are the years of adolescence, and how much more might be wisely done, by private effort and by public authority, to ward off the perils by which, in unwatched and unguided lives, those years are beset.

These new currents of national thought and feeling converge upon the problem of the continuation school—that is, upon the difficult question, what kind of educational care it is expedient that the community should extend over boys and girls during the three or four critical years immediately following the close of their present day-school course.

The evidence before us points to the conclusion that this problem cannot be satisfactorily solved without (1) further limitation of the hours of juvenile and adolescent labour, (2) the imposing upon employers legal obligations in regard to the further education of their younger work-people, and (3) trenchant interference with certain forms of industry which are parasitic upon the body politic.

These conclusions, however, have special reference to the needs of industrial and commercial districts. In the rural districts the conditions are different. We have seen that the present trend of educational thought is towards

some form of training in which practical employment is combined with part-time instruction. Agricultural callings lend themselves naturally to such an arrangement. Half-time work in the open air is healthy for growing boys and girls, if the labour is not too arduous and if the conditions of work are really educational and morally elevating. It is to be feared, however, that in many rural districts in England the conditions of field work are at present far from being either morally elevating for boys and girls or, in any true sense of the word, educational. The worst evil in many English villages is a low moral tradition which injures boys and girls alike. And many who employ them have in view cheap labour, not the careful training of the next generation of workers in the land. Great numbers of tenant farmers of the old-fashioned type are hostile to anything which will make the labourer more independent, and they regard what has too long passed under the name of "education" as a cause of unsettlement and difficulty rather than of increased efficiency and skill. How far the prevalence of this view of the matter is due to the unsatisfactory results of the poorer sort of village school; how far to the influence of social prejudices connected with the English system of land tenure; how far to the farmer's own deficiencies in regard to education; and how far to economic embarrassment caused by a long struggle against the competition of imported foodstuffs, are questions upon which judgments differ widely. Whatever the cause, the educational opportunities of most English rural districts are, as a rule, far below the level of those which an intelligent town workman would wish his children to enjoy. They are also, as a rule, quite insufficient for the training of a generation of country workers capable of that concerted action, based upon mutual trust and

enlightened by science, which is the secret of the success (under favourable economic conditions) of prosperous agricultural communities in Denmark to Germany. We cannot be surprised, therefore, at the pretty general failure of continuation school work in most rural districts in England. The young people grow up in an atmosphere which, as a rule, nips educational ambitions in the bud. What is really wanted in most country districts is a new attitude of mind towards education. There is all the difference in the world between the way in which the Danish agricultural communities and the English look upon educational organisation and opportunities.

On the other hand, there are reasons for encouragement and hope. If educational opportunities are adequately organised and if the social atmosphere is invigorating and conducive to independence of character, it is far better for children to grow up in the country than under the artificial conditions of city life. For the improvement of methods of teaching in rural schools more has been done in the last ten years than in the previous fifty. The Board of Education and many of the County Education Authorities have encouraged practical studies in country day schools with energy and success. Continuation schools are by no means universally a disappointing failure. In Cambridgeshire, for example, there is an evening school in every second parish. The local influence of such a school as the Lady Manners School at Bakewell, in Derbyshire, gradually changes the point of view from which farmers look upon secondary education. They see the benefit that their sons and daughters gain from good teaching. No State in North America is more convinced from practical experience of the value of education, none more liberal in the public support of it, than the farming State of

Wisconsin. The advantages of the consolidated schools which have been established in many rural districts of the United States (notably in Ohio and in Massachusetts) and in each province of the Dominion of Canada through the munificence of Sir William Macdonald and the educational insight of Professor Robertson, are realised by an increasing number of administrators in our agricultural counties. The work of the People's High Schools in Denmark has become widely known and is heartily admired. Hundreds of country clergymen are, as they long have been, the unwearied friends of the village school. And the town populations are beginning to realise that an intelligent and prosperous country side is a necessary part of national welfare and a reservoir from which urban England may draw supplies of strength. The time is ripe in England for a few striking object lessons in the equipment and staffing of highly efficient rural schools. Three or four such working experiments in different parts of an agricultural county would set people thinking and diffuse a new idea of the part which well-planned education can play in furthering the interests of agriculture and of country life. Motor transport may help towards a solution of the difficulty of bringing elder children from a group of villages to a central school. At present there is great waste of intellectual power in English rural districts through the inadequate staffing of the upper classes in the elementary schools. The Board of Education is not unlikely to encourage in English rural schools the "supplementary classes" which have proved successful in Scotland. If the Government grants were proportionate to the real working cost of such institutions, higher elementary schools with an appropriate curriculum might do for some country neighbourhoods what the *écoles primaires supérieures* have done (though less effectively

than might have been hoped) in some parts of rural France.¹ And the system of excusing pupils from school attendance during several summer months, on condition that they continue day-school attendance during the winter up to a much later age than is now required, deserves a trial wherever the schools are sufficiently well staffed to ensure a suitable training for such elder pupils. When these preliminary steps have been taken, the fortunes of the rural continuation schools will grow brighter. What is needed is a comprehensive treatment of the whole problem of rural education in England. Administrative improvement must be accompanied by a vigorous propaganda and by materially increased subsidy from the State. At present, many rural districts in England cannot possibly afford to provide out of local rates the kind of education which the people need and which, when they learnt its benefits, they would heartily appreciate.

There is good ore in the country districts, but it is not being properly worked. It is to the national interest that it should be worked energetically and well. The children in our villages, in spite of all the educational advantages of country life, have but slender opportunities compared with those enjoyed by their contemporaries in the large towns. In the re-organisation of schools now going forward in England, it is just that country-bred children should have a better share. Modern business of all kinds, agricultural and urban alike, demands the power of organization. The welfare of an agricultural community under modern conditions depends in great measure upon readiness to combine, upon the prompt and intelligent use of scientific methods of organization, and upon co-operative effort in putting produce upon the market at the right

1. "Special Reports on Educational Subjects," vol. vii (1902). "Rural Education in France," by Cloudesley Brereton and J. C. Medd, pp. 182—192 and 302—4.

time, in convenient and attractive forms, in sufficiently large quantities to secure cheap rates of carriage, and with a steady maintenance of even quality. It will therefore be a chief part of the task of rural education in England and elsewhere, to induce, in place of the old temper of isolated effort, the new spirit of association and of mutual trust. In order to accomplish this, the schools must be intellectually stimulating, scientific in method and skilful in the combination of hand work with literary training. But their greatest task will lie in moral training and in forming in the hearts of young people a definite moral ideal of individual duty performed for the common good. A training of this kind, however, must extend beyond the ordinary limits of attendance at the elementary day school. It will involve a continuance of educational care during adolescence. And, as in Denmark, it may lead to some form of adult schools for young men and young women engaged in agriculture.

The answer to the first of the three questions propounded in this chapter seems therefore to be that it is desirable to encourage increased attendance at continuation schools in England both in town and country, but that in order to secure this four things will be found necessary—the power of a social ideal, an active propaganda inspired by that ideal, further limitation of the hours during which young people are employed and considerable improvement in the ordinary conditions in which the work of the elementary day schools is at present done.

2. Is it desirable to extend to continuation schools the principle of compulsory attendance?

During the last few years four Bills, dealing with compulsory attendance at continuation schools, have been introduced into Parliament.

(i.) The first was that introduced in the House of Lords in July, 1904, by the Bishop of Hereford, Dr. Percival.¹ It proposed to give power to local education authorities to make total or partial exemption from attendance at a public elementary day school conditional, in the case of boys or girls, on their attending some recognised evening continuation school or class until they should attain the age of sixteen years, or should reach (in reading, writing and arithmetic) "the standard of Standard VII as fixed by the elementary day school code." The Bill proposed to fix twelve as the minimum age for total exemption from attendance at a public elementary school in the case of boys who had definite agricultural or horticultural employment and whose parents desired that they should be so employed, provided that boys so exempted should attend some recognised evening continuation school for at least three evenings a week from October to March inclusive (with a total number of attendances equal to ninety hours), until they should attain the age of sixteen years. Any failure so to attend an evening continuation school was to necessitate their return to the day school until they should attain the age of fourteen or reach the required standard. The term "evening continuation school" or "class" was defined to mean "a school or class meeting at or after six o'clock; or on Saturday or any other day observed in the locality as a half-holiday, at or after two o'clock in the afternoon; or at such earlier hour as may in any particular case be allowed by the Board of Education." But it was provided that "if the parent of the boy or girl so requires, attendances at a Sunday school or Bible class not exceeding in the aggregate thirty hours' duration in any one year shall

1. Bill 161, 1904.

be reckoned for the purpose of calculating the required number of attendances, as if they were attendances at an evening continuation school or class." The administrative machinery of the Bill was as follows:—Whenever a boy or girl became subject to an obligation to attend an evening continuation school or class in accordance with the conditions on which total or partial exemption from day school attendance was granted, the local authority would be required to grant to the boy or girl in question a certificate, to be called a "continuation school certificate." This certificate would remain in force for three months, but was to be renewable from time to time by the school inspector for the area in which the boys or girl resided or was employed. Before renewing the certificate the inspector would be required to satisfy himself that the holder had made the prescribed number of attendances at the continuation school during the year. The certificate thus renewed was not in any case to remain in force for more than five months, at the end of which period the inspector would again assure himself whether the required attendance at the continuation school had been made. It was provided that no person should employ any boy or girl who might be required under the Act to attend an evening continuation school, unless the boy or girl should hold, during the time of the employment, a continuation school certificate. Employers were also forbidden to employ such boys and girls in a manner which would prevent them from attending the continuation school. The penalty proposed was a fine not exceeding forty shillings for each offence; but it was provided that no person should be deemed to have acted in contravention of the law if it were proved to the satisfaction of the court that there was no evening continuation school, which the boy or girl could attend, within a distance of one

mile and a half, measured according to the nearest road, from his or her residence. Subject to these conditions, attendance at an evening continuation school was to be enforced in the same manner as attendance at a public elementary school. The Bill also provided that "A local education authority shall take care to make the methods of teaching in evening continuation schools bright, interesting and instructive, and adapted to the practical needs of the scholars; and the Board of Education, in making any grant in respect of any such school, shall take into consideration whether the authority have complied with this direction." It was further provided that the Board of Education should, by order, make regulations for the examination of any boy or girl attending an evening continuation school or class and desiring to reach the required standard, and that the persons having the management of the school or class should comply with regulations so made.

(ii.) In 1902, Mr. Lambert and others introduced in the House of Commons a Bill¹ on lines similar to those previously adopted by the Bishop of Hereford. The minimum amount of attendances at a continuation school for boys exempted at twelve years of age from day school attendance for "definite and regular agricultural employment" (horticultural employment not being referred to), was reduced from three to two evenings a week and from a total of ninety hours of instruction to seventy. The section as to the method of teaching in continuation schools was omitted, and there was substituted for it a clause providing that "a special grant, not exceeding fifty per cent. of the cost, shall be made to local education authorities by the Board of Education towards the expenses incurred in the formation of continuation school

1. Bill 168, of 1905.

gardens and in the proper equipment of continuation schools with apparatus, models and specimens suitable for the instruction to be given in them and in the gardens, provided that (1) the methods of instruction are adapted to the practical needs of the scholars, and (2) the estimated cost and full particulars are submitted to and sanctioned by the Board of Education." The provision that attendance at a Sunday school or Bible class should be reckoned as equivalent to part of the required attendances at a continuation school was omitted.

(iii.) In 1906, Sir John Brunner and others introduced in the House of Commons the Education Acts Amendment Bill.¹ This Bill differed from that introduced by Mr. Lambert in the previous session (1) by the omission of the section which allowed partial exemption from day school attendance to be made conditional on attendance at a continuation school, (2) by the omission of the section providing for the examination of boys and girls attending evening continuation schools, and (3) by the omission of any definition of a standard of attainment in reading, writing and arithmetic required to be attained by pupils attending continuation schools as a condition of partial or total exemption.²

(iv.) In 1907, the Education (Scotland) Bill,³ introduced in the House of Commons by Mr. Sinclair and the Lord Advocate on behalf of the Government but subsequently dropped, contained two important sections dealing with

1. Bill 220, 1906.

2. A letter by Mr. J. C. Medd in support of the principle of Sir J. Brunner's Bill appeared in the *Spectator* of September 28th, 1906. Appended to it was the following editorial note: "We are convinced that the need of continuation schools to supplement our present system of elementary schools is a vital one. We sincerely trust that the principles underlying Sir John Brunner's Bill may be accepted. We would follow the continuation school by three months' military training."

3. Bill 130, 1907.

the question of attendance at continuation schools. The clauses are as follows:—

7.—(1) It shall be lawful for a school board in granting exemption from the obligation to attend school to children under section three of the Education (Scotland) Act, 1901, to impose as a condition of such exemption (in addition to any other lawful conditions)

(a) attendance at a day school, or

(b) where a suitable continuation class is provided, attendance at a continuation class

after the age of fourteen, and until such age not exceeding seventeen as the school board shall think fit, and that for such part of the year in the case of a day school or for such number of attendances in the case of a continuation class as the school board shall prescribe.

(2) If any person knowingly employs a young person above the age of fourteen at any time when his attendance is required by a condition imposed under this section at a day school or a continuation class, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding *forty shillings*, or in case of a second or subsequent offence not exceeding *five pounds*.

(3) If any parent or guardian of a young person above the age of fourteen by wilful default or by habitually neglecting to exercise due care has conducted to the commission of an alleged offence under the immediately preceding subsection or otherwise to failure on the part of the young person to attend at a day school or a continuation class at a time when his attendance is required by a condition imposed under this section, he shall be liable on summary conviction to the like penalty.

8.—(1) It shall be lawful for a school board from time to time to make, vary, and revoke byelaws for requiring the attendance at continuation classes until the age of seventeen of young persons who are not otherwise receiving a suitable education, and that at such times and for such periods as may in such byelaws be specified:

Provided that no young person shall be required to attend a continuation class held beyond two miles measured along the nearest road from the residence of such young person.

(2) Byelaws so made shall not take effect unless and until they have been submitted to and confirmed by the Department, who are hereby empowered to allow, or disallow the same, as they may think proper, nor shall any such byelaws be confirmed:—

Unless notice of intention to apply for confirmation of the same has been given in one or more of the newspapers circulated within or by handbills posted throughout, the district to which such byelaws relate, one month at least before the making of such application; and

Unless for one month at least before any such application is considered a copy of the proposed byelaws has been kept at the office of the school board and has been open during office hours thereat to the inspection of the ratepayers of the district to which such byelaws relate, without fee or reward.

Any person aggrieved by any proposed byelaw, or by any proposed alteration of a byelaw, may within such last-mentioned month, forward notice of his objection to the Department, which shall consider the same before granting confirmation.

The clerk of the school board shall, on the application of any such ratepayer, furnish him with a copy of such proposed byelaws or any part thereof, on payment of *sixpence* for every hundred words contained in such copy.

A byelaw when confirmed by the Department shall not require confirmation, allowance, or approval by any other authority.

(3) If any person knowingly employs a young person at any time when his attendance is by any such byelaw required at a continuation class he shall be liable on summary conviction to a penalty not exceeding *forty shillings*, or in case of a second or subsequent offence not exceeding *five pounds*.

(4) If any parent or guardian of a young person by wilful neglect, or by habitually neglecting to exercise due care, has conducted to the commission of an alleged offence under the immediately preceding subsection, or otherwise to failure on the part of the young person to attend a continuation class as required in any such byelaw, he shall be liable on summary conviction to the like penalty.

(5) The Department shall not allow any byelaw unless they are satisfied that there is a suitable provision of continuation classes within the parish or burgh to which it bears to be applicable.

(6) The production of a written or printed copy of a byelaw, if authenticated by the signature of the clerk to the school board, shall, until the contrary is proved, be sufficient evidence of the due making and existence of the byelaw, and, if it is so stated in the copy, of the byelaw having been allowed by the Department.

9. All prosecutions for offences under either of the two immediately preceding sections of this Act shall take place before the sheriff in the manner provided by the Summary Jurisdiction Acts, and penalties shall be recoverable by imprisonment in terms of those Acts.

The expression "continuation class" means a class conducted in accordance with the Code of Regulations of the Department for classes providing further instruction for pupils who have left school :

The proposals thus made in a succession of Parliamentary Bills show that in Great Britain there is a current of opinion in favour of requiring attendance at continuation schools during the years following the elementary day school course. There have been many other signs of the same trend of thought.

In 1904, the Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration recommended (1) that boys should be obliged to attend continuation classes in which drill and physical exercises should take a prominent place, and (2) that, subject to the exercise of a judicious discretion on the part of the school authority, the attendance of girls should be made obligatory, twice a week during certain months of the year. In the girls' classes the course of instruction should include (a) physical exercises of a recreative character and (b) teaching in domestic hygiene, "including the preparation of food, the practice of house-

hold cleanliness, the tendance and feeding of young children, the proper requirements of a family as to clothing, everything, in short, that would equip a young girl for the duties of a housewife.”¹

In May, 1904, on the motion of Sir Henry Hibbert, the Blackburn and District Chamber of Commerce adopted a resolution to the effect that “the time has arrived when steps should be taken to ensure a period of attendance at evening continuation classes in the case of all scholars under 17 years of age who are not in attendance at a day school. The Blackburn Chamber of Commerce has given close and careful attention to the question of evening continuation school education, and is firmly convinced that a large proportion of the money spent on the scholars in the elementary day schools of England and Wales is wasted owing to the fact that the education of a large proportion of these children actually ceases when they leave the elementary day school. . . . The main advantages to be derived from the legalising of our resolution would be, first, the prevention of a great waste of public money; second, an improvement in the general education of our people; third, a diminution of the loafers at our street corners; fourth, the cultivation at a critical age of wholesome discipline and restraint.”

In March, 1905, the Monmouthshire Education Committee resolved “that attendance should be made compulsory at evening classes for all boys under 16 years of age, for two nights per week and for not less than one and a half hours per night.”

In June, 1906, on the motion of Col. Fishwick, of Rochdale, the Association of Education Committees resolved

1. Report, vol. i, paragraphs 230, 372 and 380. London: Wyman & Sons, 1904. Cd. 2175.

- (a) That every child under fourteen should be required by law to attend school every time and the whole time the school is open.
- (b) That no person under sixteen should be entirely exempt from the obligation to attend for instruction at classes held either during the day or the evening.

(Carried by 496 votes to 50.)

In July, 1906, at the largely attended annual conference of school managers and teachers in Surrey, a resolution was carried by an overwhelming majority in favour of making attendance at continuation classes twice a week during the winter months obligatory on all boys and girls up to seventeen years of age, and of placing all employers of young persons under seventeen under a statutory obligation so to arrange their hours of labour as to enable the pupils to attend continuation classes without undue fatigue.

Mention should also be made of some weighty expressions of individual opinion. Mr. and Mrs. Webb, in the 1902 edition of their *Industrial Democracy* write as follows: "We see no reason why the present prohibition to employ a boy in a factory or workshop for more than thirty hours in a week should not be extended to all occupations and at least up to the age of eighteen. The twenty or thirty hours per week thus saved from industrial employment should be compulsorily devoted to a properly organised course of physical training and technical education, which could, under such circumstances, be carried out with a thoroughness and efficiency hitherto undreamt of. Meanwhile, employers would remain free to engage boys but, as they could get them only for half-time, they would not be tempted to hire them except for the legitimate purpose of training up a new generation of craftsmen."¹ Mr. C. H. Creasey, in his *Technical Education in Evening Schools*, published in, 1905, declared it

1. *Industrial Democracy*, new edition. Longmans, 1902, p. lvi.

to be "practically certain that the failure of all ordinary methods to secure regular attendance at continuation schools will necessitate State interference, as the only remedy." But he urged that "before public opinion could be brought round to view the innovation kindly, it would be necessary to demonstrate its feasibility in particular cases." This, he pointed out, could be done by giving local education authorities the option of extending the principle of compulsory attendance to the continuation school.¹

In November, 1905, a deputation of working men and women (including Mr. W. Crooks, M.P., Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P., Miss Catherine Webb, Mr. Joseph Emes, C.C., and others) submitted to the Board of Education the following resolution (adopted at a conference held in Oxford) which, it will be observed, does not in itself affirm the principle of compulsory attendance at evening continuation schools.

"That this Conference, representative of Co-operative Societies, Trade Unions and educational organisations, having regard to the educational wastage consequent upon young people of both sexes either neglecting, or being prevented by conditions of employment from utilising, the facilities afforded by the Education Authorities for instruction in the evening, urges the Board of Education to ascertain from the Local Education Authorities how far, and under what conditions, employers and employed in their respective areas would welcome legislation having for its ultimate object compulsory attendance at evening schools."

In the report of the deputation, issued by the Workers' Educational Association,² there will be found memoranda in favour of compulsory attendance at continuation schools written by Messrs. J. and J. Colman, Ltd., of Norwich, Mrs. J. W. Bury, Mr. W. Nield, and Mr. D. J. Shackleton, M.P.

1. *Technical Education in Evening Schools* (London: Sonnenschein), pp. 33—35 and (for an estimate of the cost of compulsory continuation schools), pp. 297—300. Reference may also here be made to the discussion of the question of compulsory attendance at evening schools in the *Report on Secondary Education in Liverpool*. (London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1904), pp. 131—2.

2. 24 Buckingham Street, Strand W.C.

In February, 1906, at a meeting of the London branch of the Christian Social Union, Canon Barnett advocated "compulsory evening schools to which pupils of day schools should pass without a break and attend three nights a week until they were seventeen years of age."¹

Such an extension of the period during which the State watches over the educational welfare of young people would involve no new principle in English law. The Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf children) Act, 1893 (section 11), extends the period of compulsory education in the case of such children to sixteen years. The same extension of the period of compulsory education up to sixteen is made, in the case of defective or epileptic children, by section 11 of the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic children) Act, 1899. In an Industrial School a pupil may be detained up to the age of 16, and the managers have power of supervision up to the age of 18.

Those who propose that boys should be required to attend continuation schools for a few years after the close of their elementary day school course can quote many striking examples of the success of such an arrangement. In nineteen out of the twenty-five cantons of Switzerland attendance at continuation schools is obligatory for boys up to seventeen years of age, and in one canton it is obligatory for girls as well.² In twenty out of the twenty-six constituent parts of the German Empire, the attendance of boys at continuation schools is compulsory (either throughout the State or in districts adopting a special bye-law) while in four States and in some districts of a fifth it is compulsory for girls also.³ In all these cases

1. *Times* report, February 7, 1906.

2. See p. 574.

3. See pp. 515—517.

the results appear to be on the whole satisfactory and to command general, though not unanimous, approval. In France there is no compulsion to attend continuation schools but there is some weight of opinion in favour of introducing it.¹ In seven of the United States (Colorado, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Utah, Minnesota and Wyoming) the upper age limit of compulsory school attendance is 16 or over. But in those States there does not exist (at least so far as I am aware) any organised system by which all the children in the State are required to attend continuation school from fourteen years of age to sixteen or over. In cases of illiterary or non-completion of the regular elementary school course, continued attendance is enforced.² But otherwise the child is free. In practice, that is to say (except in States in which there is no law of compulsory attendance at all), the normal leaving age from the elementary school is 14. But there is at present a current of opinion in Massachusetts in favour of the adoption of something like the German system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools.³

Whatever may be our opinions as to the ultimate necessity for compulsion, it will be agreed that without immediate recourse to such a remedy much could be done to improve the attendance at continuation schools in England and Wales. The success of Widnes, Halifax, Rochdale and other towns shows that, when close personal attention is paid to this difficult problem in educational administration, a very considerable percentage of boys and girls will come to the evening continuation schools, voluntarily and without a break, after the close of their elementary day-school course. But it must be admitted that this success

1. See pp. 578 and 637.

2. See pp. 675 ff.

3. See pp. 666 and 669—70.

in evening school administration is easier of attainment in industrial districts (especially where large employers of labour encourage attendance at evening classes) than in towns where boys of fourteen years of age find it difficult to obtain openings in skilled trades, or than in commercial cities where office boys are often kept late at their work. It is also easier everywhere in the case of boys than in the case of girls, and in the towns than in the country.

Nor is the question one of educational administration only. An effective treatment of it must involve in some cases further limitation of the hours of adolescent labour and some statutory recognition of the educational responsibilities of employers towards their younger work-people. The great development of continuation schools which has taken place in parts of Germany and Switzerland during recent years is due, not entirely but in great measure, to a clearer legal definition of the duties of employers in regard to the further education of the apprentices. By the German Imperial Law of Industry, 1891 (as amended in 1900), employers of labour are required to grant to those of their employees under 18 years of age (female clerks and apprentices being included), who attend a continuation school the necessary time for such attendance as may be demanded by the bye-laws of the district.¹ The similar trend of legislation in parts of Switzerland is illustrated by the Apprenticeship Act of the Canton of Zurich which became law on November 21, 1905. By that Act an apprentice is defined as "any minor, male or female, who wishes to learn a definite trade in a workshop or industrial establishment, in an apprenticeship workshop, or technical school, or in a commercial business." "It shall be the duty of the

1. See p. 527.

master to give the greatest possible attention to the physical and mental well-being of the apprentice and to educate him in the principles and skill required for the business, with a view to his development, on the following system: He shall conduct the training of the apprentice either in person or through the medium of a suitable substitute. The apprentice shall not be employed in other than the business of the trade, except in so far as the contract expressly allows it and provided that his acquisition of the trade is not thereby prejudiced." (Section 5). "Where there are industrial, commercial or general continuation schools situated at or near the master's place of residence, the apprentice shall be bound to attend the school or any faculty thereof which would be of use in advancing his technical training. His master shall allow him time, amounting to at least four hours a week, for such classes as take place during his hours of work. Time spent on such instruction shall be regarded as part of the legal hours of work. The apprentice shall also be allowed the time necessary for religious instruction," (Section 11). "The right to keep apprentices may be withdrawn from persons who are repeatedly found guilty of gross neglect of duty towards the apprentices entrusted to them or if there is evidence showing them to be morally unsuited for educating apprentices." (Section 16.) "Every apprentice shall undergo an examination at the end of his period of apprenticeship as a test of his technical knowledge and skill." (Section 19.) "The State Council shall draw up the necessary forms of procedure for the conduct of the examinations and for the appointment of the managing committees and examiners. The expenses of the examinations shall be borne by the State," (Section 20.) "Every candidate who succeeds in passing the apprenticeship examination shall be furnished

with a certificate on the conclusion of his period of apprenticeship." (Section 23.)¹

The Apprenticeship Act of the Canton of the town of Basle which became law June 14, 1906, contains similar provisions, but their effect is limited by a section which causes them not to apply to establishments coming under the Federal law regulating work in factories. An apprentice is defined as "any minor of either sex who wishes to learn a certain trade in a workshop, an apprenticeship workshop, a commercial establishment, or any undertaking carried on on commercial lines, or with a private individual, and who shall to this end make a contract of a definite duration with his master. Persons in receipt of a salary shall also be considered as apprentices when it is clear from the conditions of the employment that they are in the position of apprentices." (Section 4.)

No person shall enter into apprenticeship before the end of the school year wherein he has completed the fourteenth year of his age, unless the competent authorities shall have already freed him from the obligation to attend school. In no case, however, shall a child enter into apprenticeship before completing his fourteenth year (Section 8).

The master shall do his utmost to give the apprentice a complete training, both theoretical and practical in his trade, in accordance with the system agreed upon in the contract. The instruction shall be given to the apprentice either by the master himself or by a qualified substitute. (Section 13.)

The master shall allow the apprentice leisure in which to attend classes for religious instruction. He shall, moreover, require the apprentice to attend the continuation schools and finishing classes organised or subsidised

1. *Bulletin of the International Labour Office*, vol. i, pp. 58-62, 1906. (London: Labour Representation Printing and Publishing Co., Ltd., 3 New Road, Woolwich.)

by the State, as well as the preparatory and technical classes which concern his trade. The master shall allow him, during work-hours, full time to attend these classes, and to take part in the apprenticeship examination.

In accordance with the regulations made by the State Council for each trade, the Apprenticeship Committee shall fix the number of hours, not exceeding six per week, to be allowed by the master to the apprentice for attendance at preparatory or technical classes. (Section 15.)

The State Council may, at the request of the Apprenticeship Committee, require the apprentice to attend certain preparatory or technical classes organised or subsidised by the State, taking into consideration the trade to be learned and the prescribed examination. (Section 17.)

The hours of work of apprentices shall not exceed ten hours a day or sixty hours a week, including the hours allowed by Section 15 for religious instruction, and for attending the various classes and the apprenticeship examination.

Similarly, female apprentices not having completed their fifteenth year shall not work more than nine hours a day or fifty-four hours a week.

Over and above the hours prescribed above, apprentices may be employed for not more than a quarter of an hour a day in clearing up after work. (Section 21.)

All apprentices bound, by Section 17, to attend certain preparatory and technical classes, shall at the end of their time, undergo an examination on their theoretical and practical knowledge of the trade. . . .

The Department of the Interior shall confer a diploma on the apprentice who has successfully passed the examination. (Section 26.)

Infractions of the law of apprenticeship, and regulations pursuant thereon, shall be punishable by fines; and in the

case of serious or repeated offences by a fine or by imprisonment.

Penalties shall be inflicted in the case of—

(1) Masters who keep apprentices illegally, or keep more than the legal number of apprentices, or admit apprentices under the prescribed age, or violate the provisions relating to the notification to apprentices of the contract of apprenticeship, or to hours of work, or who do not allow the apprentice the time necessary for his religious instruction, or for attending the continuation schools, the finishing, preparatory and technical classes, or who have not complied with the instructions of the inspectors by taking proper measures to protect the health and life of the apprentice.

(2) Apprentices who, for a length of time, or repeatedly, neglect, without good cause, to attend the compulsory classes aforesaid, or who absent themselves from the compulsory examination.¹

It may be said that in German-speaking Europe the principle of enforcing attendance (at any rate in the case of boys) at the continuation school up to sixteen or seventeen years of age has won the day. In England, there is a body of opinion, which seems to be growing from year to year, in favour of a prolongation of the period of compulsory attendance at school. But many experienced administrators feel strong objection to any plan which would make attendance at evening schools compulsory for young people. It is desirable therefore to state and examine the arguments to which they attach especial weight.

In the first place, it is argued that one student who comes to an evening class of his own free will is worth

¹ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office*, vol. i 1906, pp. 202—207.

many of those who would come only because they were compelled by law. It is possible that some of those who lay stress upon this argument misapprehend the actual working of a system for compulsory continuation schools. Such a system does not involve any uniform course of instruction through which all students are required to pass, irrespective of the degrees of their ability and the needs of the occupations which they are engaged. On the contrary, a highly organised system of continuation classes, such as that of the city of Munich, presents a variety of opportunities for "further education" at least as great as can be found anywhere in Great Britain. The system of compulsory attendance enforces a minimum, but does not prescribe any uniformity of course. The keen student finds as much opportunity for pursuing his favourite studies under a well organised compulsory system as he does under a voluntary system like our own. Those who have studied the working of compulsory continuation classes in parts of Germany and Switzerland will agree in thinking that there is as much keenness among the students there as there is in England. But this answer does not meet the real force of the argument advanced by the supporters of the principles of voluntary attendance. They mean that it is expedient to offer further educational opportunities only in such a way as to help those who are making special efforts to help themselves. For this contention much more may be said than collectivist thinkers are generally willing to admit. Just as great saints appear when the world is defiantly evil, so perhaps are the most vigorous personalities shaped in the midst of a wasteful, trampling scramble of life. It does not follow that the vigorous personality thus produced is always a pleasant thing or a good example for the young; but the shepherding and protection of average, commonplace people may be secured at too high a price.

Secondly it is argued that, if attendance at continuation schools were made compulsory in England, great difficulties would arise in regard to discipline in the classes. Experience shows, however, that no serious difficulty need be apprehended on this score. When the compulsory system is adopted, it comes into operation gradually. In the areas where attendance is made compulsory, all children on reaching the appointed age pass naturally into the continuation classes if they do not proceed to a secondary day school. They and their parents regard the legal obligation as a matter of course. This has been the case in Germany and Switzerland, where practically no difficulty has arisen in regard to discipline at the continuation classes. We have also some experience of the working of compulsory attendance in England. It is not found at Messrs. Cadbury's or at Messrs. Rowntree's that any difficulties of discipline arise in the classes which they require their younger workpeople to attend. At Messrs. Cadbury's the parent of every applicant admitted to employment by the firm is required to sign the following Authorization Form: —

AUTHORIZATION FORM.

I agree that.....

Address shall

EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Attend from the date of admittance to your employment for two evenings weekly at Evening Continuation Classes held during the winter months until he (or she) becomes 16 years of age, no student being allowed to leave school until the end of the Session in which they have commenced.

* * * * *

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

That he or she shall receive instructions in Gymnastics and Swimming during work hours until the end of the term in which she reaches her 15th birthday.

Signed.....

Date.....

The boys attend Gymnastic and Swimming classes until the end of the terms during which they reach their 16th birthday.

When Messrs. Brunner, Mond and Co., of Northwich, first made attendance at evening schools compulsory for the lads in their employment, there was a little trouble in the class-rooms through the unruliness of some of the boys who came unwillingly. But the disorder was quickly stopped. The parents of the youths were summoned to a meeting at which they were plainly told that the firm intended to employ in future no boy who did not regularly attend the evening school. They were recommended to tell their sons "that the matter was no joke, as the firm had determined to have their new regulation properly carried out. From that time forwards," adds Mr. Hewitt, "no difficulty of the kind occurred and the compulsory attendance at evening classes is now a very popular arrangement both with pupils and parents."

Wherever the requirement of compulsory attendance at continuation schools is supported by the most influential employers of labour in the locality, it is found that the sympathies of most of the parents are on the side of the new system. Regularity of attendance at the classes improves the prospects of obtaining more responsible employment. Moreover, the tendency to fall into step and do as everybody else does, is strong in matters of this kind.

Thirdly, many feel strong objection to the plan of compelling attendance at evening classes on the ground that such an arrangement might unduly strain the health and powers of growing boys and girls. This aspect of the question needs to be very carefully examined. In 1904, the Prussian Minister of Industry and Commerce issued a decree condemning late hours of work in continuation schools on the ground that growing boys, after having worked in the shop from an early hour, were not able to put forth much intellectual effort in the late hours of the

evening. The Minister announced that his experience had led him to decide that classes in compulsory continuation schools should be held during the day time and should close not later than 8 p.m.

To compel a growing and delicate boy, tired with a long day's work, to attend classes late in the evening would be indefensible. It would be even less excusable to require attendance in the case of young girls, weary with long hours of work in shop or office.

In many cases, however, the boys and girls are quite strong enough to bear two evenings a week of continuation school without over-strain. Discriminating treatment of individual cases would be necessary. Moreover, the introduction of compulsory attendance at continuation schools would need be accompanied by a statutory obligation upon the employer to enable his younger workpeople to attend continuation classes at hours fixed by the local authority in accordance with the convenience of the trade. It would be found possible, in many shops and in a large number of trades, to allow the young people either to leave early on two evenings a week during the winter months or to attend classes at those hours in the day-time at which in each calling the claims of business are generally least severe.

Fourthly, it is justly urged that, at present, great numbers of the teachers in evening schools are jaded by long hours of previous work in the day-school. This is certainly the case, and is one reason why in many towns the continuation schools flag and fail to attract the young people. Many of our evening continuation schools would need to be much improved if any system of compulsory attendance were introduced. One result of any thorough-going reorganisation of our continuation schools (like that which would follow from the adoption of the principle

of compulsory attendance) would be a great improvement in the staffing of the evening schools. To improve the present conditions, much could and should be done without delay. It is desirable that no teacher should be allowed to give instruction throughout the morning, afternoon and evening of the same day. If the teaching is to be fresh, two periods out of the three are enough.

Of the cost which would be entailed by a system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools, it is impossible to form any accurate estimate. In 1904-5 the amount of Government grant for evening classes worked out at about nine shillings per head of the total attendance. It is not known how many of those who attended were under 17 years of age, as the statistics are not sufficiently detailed to show this. Probably about 256,000 were under 17, which age may be taken as the higher limit of the period that might be fixed for compulsory attendance. If this estimate is sound, the Government grant in respect of the student who would fall under the rule of compulsory attendance was in 1904-5 about £115,200. In 1901 there were 2,012,274 persons between 14 and 17 years of age in England and Wales. About 53,000 of these were in public elementary day schools. If 200,000 more were taken as the number likely to be in secondary day schools, about 1,750,000 would be under obligation to attend continuation schools if the latter were made compulsory. Even if we strike off 750,000 of these as perhaps living too far away from a continuation school to come within the requirement of compulsory attendance, the charge upon the national revenue (apart from the charge upon rates) would be four times larger than at present and would therefore amount to, at least, £460,000. If this amount were doubled in order to include contribu-

tions from local rates, the cost would be £920,000 as compared with £230,400 which may be estimated as that part of the present cost incurred in respect of pupils under 17. But any reasonably effective system of evening school teaching would cost more per head than the present outlay, and any effective system of compulsion would not allow so many as 750,000 out of 175,000 possible students to escape the net. If therefore 300,000 more were added to the aggregate attendance and five shillings per head to the average cost, the total annual expenditure, central and local, in respect of students up to 17 years of age, would be about £1,495,000. Mr. Creasey estimates that "nearly £1,000,000 per annum" would be the total cost of requiring every boy and girl to attend a continuation school (three evenings a week during the six winter months) for double the time that their day-school course fell short of extending to 15 years.¹ This estimate, when its less extended basis is taken into account, is not far off that which is suggested above. But any very highly organised system of technical continuation schools, adjusted to trade needs and taught by expert trade teachers in buildings suitably equipped, would entail a much larger expenditure than twenty-three shillings a head. In the continuation schools in Munich, in 1906-7, the average cost per student was £2. 17s. 0d., or more than twice as much as the average cost estimated in the above calculation for England and Wales.

Whether so large an expenditure upon continuation schools would be remunerative to the nation through the enhanced industrial skill of the workers and foremen must be a matter of opinion. In Germany the judgment of the manufacturing and trading classes, as well as of the workmen, seems on the whole distinctly favourable to the

1. *Technical Education and Evening Schools*, pp. 34-35 and 297-299.

system of compulsory attendance at continuation schools. Nor must we forget the civic and social betterment which would accrue from so carefully organised a system of educational discipline. The Germans regard it as an asset of high value. On the other hand, the enforcement of compulsory attendance at continuation schools, and with it the further restriction of the hours of adolescent labour, would almost certainly curtail the money-earning power of many young people during the years 14 to 17. This would undoubtedly be a hardship to great numbers of families and would involve a temporary shrinkage of the margin of comfort in the case of many more. But this obligation applies to the first results of any raising of the national minimum of educational requirement. In all such cases, therefore, changes can only be made gradually and by instalments. The economic life of the nation as a whole would be invigorated by better technical education and by the restriction of hours of deteriorating employment during the years of adolescence. The intellectual and moral gain derived from any judicious form of such restriction would be followed, gradually but almost certainly, by a material gain.

For my own part, therefore, I should answer in the affirmative the question "Is it desirable to extend to continuation schools the principle of compulsory attendance?" But such an answer needs many qualifications. In England much can be done to improve our continuation schools without having recourse to any universal system of compulsion: That compulsion will ultimately be applied, in order to touch that residuum of the population which will not respond to an appeal for voluntary attendance, seems probable. That local authorities, which feel that their areas are ripe for such a change, should be allowed to adopt a system of compulsory attendance at

continuation schools, seems reasonable and (to judge from German and Swiss experience) likely to be a successful experiment. But it will not suffice merely to pass a law compelling all young people under 17 to attend such evening schools as now exist. Great improvements are needed in the majority of evening schools in England, if they are to meet the educational needs of the students who would attend them. Great improvements are also needed in the elementary day schools where the foundations of the whole training must be laid. Mr. Pickles, of Burnley, put the matter admirably at Oxford, at Easter, 1907, in his address as President of the National Union of Teachers.

"We want experiments tried in selected schools, with far more active and constructive work in the curriculum, with much more physical training, and with a simpler course in certain other subjects. We want more handiwork for boys throughout the whole school, instead of the small amount of manual instruction a few lads get now; and more systematic training in housecraft for girls, instead of the snippety cookery classes so often arranged primarily (owing to the uneducational regulations of the Board) with a view to earning of grants. But to do this we must continue to urge the three most needed administrative reforms: (a) A reduction in the size of large classes; (b) every class under the charge of a fully-qualified teacher; (c) abolition of factory half-time and of rural early employment, for a longer school-life and a happier child-life before the hurly-burly of work begins. With classes of sixty and more—with two million out of the six million children still taught by uncertificated teachers—with so short and broken a school-life for so many children—improvement is difficult, if not impossible."

At present, our elementary school-teaching cannot be individual enough. It does not give the children their fair chance. In England we ought to endeavour to individualise every school in our educational system and to individualise every child in every school. An effort should also be made to try a more practical kind of course in some of the schools, with far more manual work, with a great deal of physical training, and with simpler aims in regard to the more literary studies. Much may be learnt in this matter from

the industrial schools. With all the good intentions in the world, the present curriculum of many of our elementary schools is too ambitious for the real needs of some of the children. Many of the children would get more good from something simpler and more practical.

A new kind of day continuation school seems also to be needed. The trade or day technical schools, now being established under Section 42 of the Technical School Regulations, may guide us towards a kind of day secondary education more suitable for many of the children than is the more literary type of school. If we can improve the elementary schools and provide a new kind of secondary education (at once practical and intellectually stimulating) to follow it, we shall probably find that a great many children will stay on at the day school longer than it at present the case. And it is by longer attendance at the day school, *if the course of training given it is suitable to the children's needs*, that the best results will be gained.

In short, we need a period of educational experiment, generously helped and carefully watched. The new Day Technical Schools are one such experiment, wisely permitted by the Board of Education and liberally aided by several local authorities. In the sphere of elementary education, experiments are not less needed. The Board of Education, in the *Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers and others concerned in the work of Public Elementary Schools*, issued in 1905, "strongly recommend local education authorities to give opportunities in one or two selected schools for experimental work within definite limits."¹ The two Demonstration Schools which have been established by the liberality of Mrs. Fielden and others in connection with the department of

education at the University of Manchester are undertaking such work with encouraging results. What Professor John Dewey and the late Mr. Jackman did at the University Elementary School in Chicago; what Dean Russell and his colleagues are doing in the schools connected with Teachers College at Columbia University in the City of New York, may and should be done in England also, with special regard to the needs of English schools.

No great advance has ever yet been made in the development of continuation schools without a strenuous propaganda. A strong current of public interest must be set flowing before the attendance at such schools can be largely increased, still more before such attendance can wisely be made a matter of legal obligation. The value of continued education during the years of adolescence must be impressed upon the minds of parents. The magnitude of their educational responsibilities towards their younger workpeople must be brought home more clearly to the minds of employers. The omens are favourable. Public interest is already aroused. But the appeal in respect of continuation schools must not be merely to the hope of larger profits or of higher wages. What is really concerned is the civic welfare of the nation. The boys and girls themselves will respond more readily to this claim than to an appeal based exclusively upon their personal interest and advantage.

The continuation classes in England are becoming more efficient, and the Board of Education and the Local Education Authorities (with the co-operation of many enlightened employers) have done much within the last three years to give the work of the classes a more systematic and practical form. The obligation of the public to them for their efforts is great. But the obligation will be greater

if they succeed in making the work^c of the continuation schools both practical and humane.

3. How should compulsory attendance at continuation schools be enforced?

It remains to consider how, when the time is ripe for such a step, compulsory attendance at continuation schools would most wisely be enforced.

As a first step, which cannot be taken too quickly, the present half-time system in the textile trades should be, by stages, abolished. It is difficult to read Mr. Sandiford's chapter in this volume without being forced to the conclusion that, when every consideration is taken into account, the system, as it now exists, has had results physically and intellectually, and that it ought to disappear.

It deserves consideration (though there is much to be said on both sides) whether it would be well to get rid of the complexities of our present bye-laws of school attendance (in Lancashire, in March, 1907, the bye-laws of only seven out of forty-four areas agreed in their entirety) and to make 14 the leaving age for the elementary school. In that case, the local authority, as in Scotland, should be given discretionary power to grant exemption in individual cases from twelve years of age onwards (1) after due inquiry into the circumstances of each case, and (2) for reasons duly recorded in a register, and (3) with power to the Board of Education to interfere if exemptions were unsuitably granted. But some local authorities might make too profuse use of the power of exemption, and the Board of Education might find itself victually powerless to check them. In this, as in other parts of educational policy, we have to consider the spirit of the country before we can decide whether a particular

measure would work as we should like it to work. We in England have not the long tradition of respect for education which prevails generally in Scotland. In Scotland the system works well. The few children who are granted exemption under 14 are usually required by the School Board to attend evening continuation classes twice a week, at any rate during the winter months, till they are 14 years of age.

An effort should be everywhere made, as already is the case at Halifax and Rochdale, to follow up in a tactful way every boy and girl who leaves the elementary school and persuade them to join the continuation school. More careful watch should be kept on the boy after he has left school. The headmaster of his elementary school is, as a rule, the man who can do most towards inducing the lad to see the advantage of continuing his education.¹ But in order to keep in touch with the boy and his parents and to know about his education needs, more systematic registration is needed. In *School* (London: Murray) for October, 1906, an experienced writer made an excellent suggestion for the better registration of students in evening schools in urban districts. The gist of his proposal was as follows:—

“The headmasters of all elementary schools should have supplied to them cards similar to that in the diagram below, and should fill in the name, date of birth, leaving standard, and future occupation of each boy. Any other noteworthy facts, such as his excellence in a particular subject, or his apprenticeship by indenture to a trade, should also be entered. These cards should be sent once a month to the office of the local education authority, where they would be filed in alphabetical order in the usual way. At the beginning of each evening school session, the headmaster of each evening school would, on the day following the first night of the session, send a list of the boys who had entered their names as pupils to the education office and would receive their cards. He would then, from the information at his disposal, be able to divide them into classes and to see that the curriculum taken was suitable to

1. If given clerical assistance, the headmasters would have more leisure to form skilled employment registries in the schools in order to form a closer connexion between the schools and the skilled trades.

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their occupations. As soon as possible, he would enter on the card (possibly with a rubber stamp) the date of the session, the name of the school, and the course taken. At the end of the session, he would fill in remarks as to progress, attendance and examination successes, with any remarks he might wish to make, and would then return the cards to the office, where they would again be filed.

"This would be done each year, until finally when a student reached the technical school, the principal there would have the fullest details as to his past career.

"If a boy left the elementary school and never attended an evening school, his card would be kept for five or six years and then destroyed, after particulars as to his leaving standard, occupation, etc., had been extracted for the purpose of making an annual summary.

"In the case of boys entering an evening school from an elementary school outside the area of the L.E.A., the headmaster would be able to enter such particulars as he could gather from the boys themselves.

"It is possible that if this system were adopted much other valuable information might be added, such as particulars of weight, chest measurement and height, or details as to apprenticeship, if it were thought desirable.

"In any case, the records made would be useful to those engaged in research as to the progress of industrial education."

A.—Name

Born

Address

Left.....School.....18.....in Stan-

dard.....

Occupation.....

Remarks

B.—Session

Name of Even-
ing School

Course taken

Address

Remarks on
Progress, etc.

A.—To be filled up by Headmaster of Elementary School.

B.—To be filled up by Headmaster of Evening School.

It should also be made obligatory on all employers (as is already the case in the German Empire, and as was proposed in the Scotch Education Bill, 1906) to allow

their younger employés, male and female, to attend continuation classes arranged by the local education authorities. And power should be given to any local authority to require all young persons resident within its area and not otherwise under educational care, to attend continuation classes during the winter months up to the age of seventeen years. Any local authority availing itself of this permissive power might well receive grants from Government at a double rate. The various courses of technical instruction in the continuation schools should be arranged by the local education authority after consultation with the employers and workmen in each trade. The fact that in England we have a much less complete organisation of the master workmen and employers in each trade than is the case in Germany will make it more difficult for us to carry out this plan. But the difficulties are not insuperable. The hours of labour for boys and girls in shops and offices should be more closely regulated by law. The continuation classes should be arranged at latest in the earlier hours of the evening, and, when possible, in the daytime at hours convenient for the trade or calling in question.

In the country districts, where compulsory attendance at evening schools must always be difficult and often undesirable to enforce, especially in the case of girls, efforts should be made to organise educational institutions on the lines of the People's High Schools in Denmark. In the work of the Co-operative Holidays Association there are already the germs and the spirit of such a patriotic undertaking.

11 11

My conclusion is that we in England have still much to do before we shall be ready to use the weapon of compulsion so far as attendance at continuation schools is

concerned.* Skilful organisation and personal interest will do much. And do not let us crush out the spirit of voluntary zeal and of variety of educational endeavour by prematurely invoking compulsion. The teaching in our continuation schools must, if it is to form character and to inspire a sense of personal duty towards the community, have moral power and be kindled by ideals. It must, therefore, be the outcome of personal conviction and must deal freely with many matters in regard to which English people are not, and never have been, agreed. Our sense of national unity comes through freedom of utterance and endeavour, not through plans of imposed uniformity. Therefore, there will always be need for a great variety of agencies in the work of "further education" in England. Neither the State nor the municipalities will gain, by any monopoly in providing it. Technical or commercial instruction they can provide. But there is need for something more than that in a national system of education for young people. The teaching must have heart in it, and must make a moral appeal.

But I am convinced that in the end some form of compulsion to attend day or evening continuation classes between 14 and 17 years of age will be found desirable, not so much in the interest of the picked individuals as in that of the rank and file. Many of the present evils of unemployment may be traced to the lack of educational care and of suitable technical training during the critical years of adolescence. Compulsion, however, should be accompanied by reduction in the hours of juvenile and adolescent labour, where those are now excessive. In working out the details of the technical courses, the local education authority should regularly consult the employers in each trade, and the workers' associations. Compulsory

attendance at continuation schools is likely to come in the towns long before it can be adopted in remoter country districts. It will be best introduced by slow instalments on a principle of local option. Those cities or districts which find local opinion ripe for the change should be empowered by law to make attendance compulsory at continuation schools within such limits as may seem to them expedient. Variety of experiment should be encouraged. In some districts it might be found possible to raise the age of exemption from attendance at the day school first to fifteen and ultimately to sixteen years of age. In some places a form of half-time attendance at the day school might be arranged for boys and girls up to sixteen. In the majority of cases, it would not be found possible, at present at any rate, to go beyond requiring attendance at evening schools during the two or three years following the elementary day school course. But the educational success of any of these plans will depend upon reforms being made in the adverse conditions under which teachers and pupils in the elementary day schools have now, too often, to do their work. The root of the matter lies in the reform of the elementary schools.

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(ii.) A Bill to amend the Education Acts 1870 to 1903. Presented to the House of Commons, April, 1905, by Mr. Lambert, supported by Mr. Henry Hobhouse, Mr. Eve, Sir Edgar Vincent and Mr. Yerburch. (Bill 168.)

(iii.) A Bill to amend the Education Acts 1870 to 1903. Presented to the House of Commons, May, 1906, by Sir John Brunner, supported by Sir William Anson, Mr. Burt, Mr. Butcher, Mr. Cameron Corbett, Mr. Crooks, Mr. Eve, Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, Mr. Masterman, Mr. George White, Mr. Whitley and Mr. Yoxall. (Bill 220.)

(iv.) A Bill to amend the Laws relating to Education in Scotland. Ordered by the House of Commons to be brought in by Mr. Sinclair and the Lord Advocate in March, 1907. (Bill 130.)

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